

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

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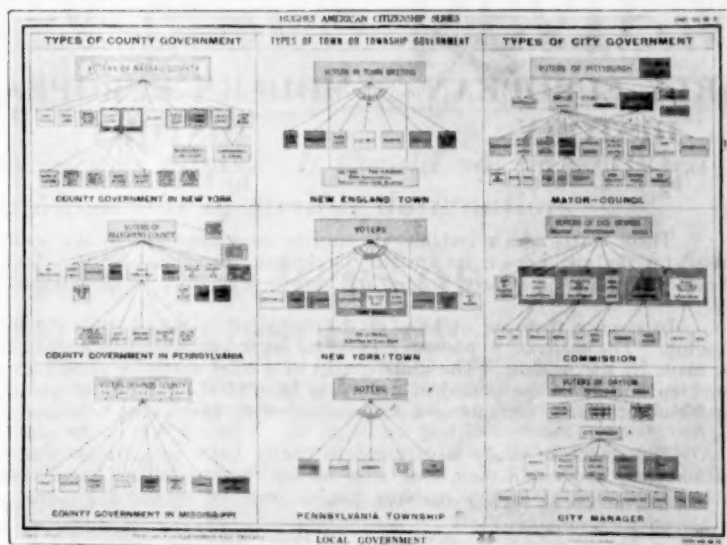
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## The Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

BY DR. LEONIDAS DODSON

The forty-fifth annual convention of the American Historical Association, the first to meet in Boston in eighteen years, gave no evidence that the historical guild is feeling the effects of "depression." With a registered attendance exceeding eight hundred, doubtless the largest in the Association's history, the gathering was one upon which the Committee on Program and on Local Arrangements are to be congratulated. The convention had its headquarters in the Copley Plaza Hotel, and overflowed to other points in Boston and Cambridge. In a setting replete with historical tradition and graced by an unstinting New England hospitality, the convention admirably achieved what is perhaps the chief end of such sessions—quite independent of any papers which may happen to be read—the bringing home through personal contacts of a sense of the fraternity of the historical profession and the worth-whileness of the historical calling.

None the less, the program was excellent. A notable feature was the prominent place given to the history of religion. One of the sectional meetings of the first morning of the convention was devoted to organized religion in American life. T. M. Whitfield, of Western Maryland College, spoke on "Southern Methodism and Slavery." G. H. Barnes, of Ohio Wesleyan University, reading a paper on the "Sources of the Anti-Slavery Movement in the Great Revival," showed how Arthur and Louis Tappan, of New York, founded the Association of Gentlemen, which tried to start a negro college in New Haven, formed an anti-slavery society in New York, and finally started the American National Anti-Slavery Society in Philadelphia, with immediate emancipation as its aim. L. G. Vander Velde, of the University of Michigan, in a very interesting paper, told of the attempt of the Old School Presbyterians to preserve the union of their body by preserving official silence on the slavery issue. H. U. Faulkner, of Smith College, in a paper on "Some Tendencies in American Christianity Since 1900," spoke of the trend toward church unity, liberalized theology, and social service. In the discussion which followed, led by W. B. Posey, of Birmingham-Southern College, it was suggested that the churches often changed their views on slavery, Northern churches being pro-slavery at first; that the World War helped church unification, but furthered the disillusionment of youth and waning in-

terest on the part of women in church work; and that there was need for studying the failure of the Inter-Church World Movement.

The following morning, at a joint session of the American Historical Association and the American Society of Church History, several papers were presented which aroused much interest. Hastings Eells, of Ohio Wesleyan University, whose biography of Martin Bucer is about to be published by the Yale University Press, spoke of the important work of this hitherto obscure man in reconciling and attempting to reconcile contending religious groups in the time of the Reformation. A suggestive paper, "Protestant Revolt or Reformation?" by Albert Hyma, of the University of Michigan, was read in his absence by Preston W. Slosson. Weighing the time-honored term, "Reformation," against that of "Protestant Revolt," recently coined by American historians, Professor Hyma concluded that both were justifiable, but that the innovation was apt to result in unnecessary confusion. A paper on "Harnack as a Church Historian," by G. W. Richards, closed the session.

That high-point of every convention, the annual presidential address, was also devoted to religion. Speaking on "Persistent Problems in Church and State," Evarts B. Greene traced the course of toleration and intolerance in American history, and brought home the point that certain issues which we are apt to regard as things of an unhappy past still remain unsettled. In the realms of educational, social, and national policy, the interrelations of Church and State are of vital moment in modern America.

At one of the Monday morning sessions a suggestive paper, "The French Revolution, Conspiracy or Circumstance," was read by L. R. Gottschalk, of the University of Chicago. Taine, an opponent of democracy, was confirmed in his conservatism by the Commune uprising of 1871. He set out to write his history of France in order to find a Constitution for France that would not conform to the revolutionary tradition of 1789. Setting aside his historical philosophy of *race, milieu, and moment*, he discovered that the Revolution was due to the *esprit classique*, a system of thought foisted upon an unhappy nation by the *philosophes*. Elaborating on this thesis, the clerical Augustin Cochin maintained that the Revolution was attributable to the conscious effort of a "machine" working through *Sociétés de Pensées* (masons,

reading circles, literary societies, etc.) to carry out a fixed program. He attacked the historians of the Aulard school, who attributed the Revolution to the force of circumstance, as official republican propagandists. Gustave Martin, student of Aulard, criticized Cochin's theory, but only to defend the masons as a benevolent order, confirming Cochin's claim that they controlled the Revolution. Depending largely upon Taine, Cochin, and Martin, but also upon the monarchist Frantz Funck-Brentano's apologies for the Old Régime and Mathiez's thesis that the Revolution was a class struggle, Pierre Gaxette presented the conspiracy theory in full as an effort of organized Jacobin groups against a good government for the purpose of establishing a communist state. More recently Nesta Webster and Léon de Poncins have attributed a leading part in this conspiracy to the Jews.

Since the convention met within a few days of the centenary of the death of Simon Bolivar, it was but fitting that a session should be devoted to the Latin-American liberator. J. B. Lockey, of the University of California, at Los Angeles, portrayed Bolivar as the true patriot. Bolivar had no ambition to become an autocrat, but was unselfish in his devotion to the interests of the people. Statesmanlike in his vision, he looked even beyond the union of the people of Latin-America to a federation world-wide in scope. In a paper on Bolivar as a soldier, Alfred Hasbrouck, of Lake Forest College, spoke on his energy and physical bravery and of his ability, so necessary in the successful general, to inspire his subordinates with his own indomitable spirit. To Bolivar's ability as an organizer the eight armies which he successfully raised bear ample witness, and as a strategist he was master of the principle of the flank attack. Like all generals, Bolivar sometimes made military mistakes, but most of these were committed when he was a young and inexperienced officer.

New England history could not with propriety be ignored by a convention held in Boston. At a session devoted to New England in the eighteenth century a paper on "New England and the Merchants of Nova Scotia, 1773-1776," by Viola F. Barnes, of Mount Holyoke College, was read by V. W. Crane, of the University of Michigan. It was followed by one on "New England Leaders and the Movement for Independence," by M. W. Jernegan, of the University of Chicago. Speaking on "Legalism vs. Revolutionary Doctrine in New England," Richard B. Morris, of the College of the City of New York, presented the paradox of the leadership in the cause of political independence being assumed in New England by a group of men who were largely responsible for bringing America into subjection to the reactionary legal system of England. Following the seventeenth century, a miraculous era of law without lawyers, the trained lawyer made his appearance. Those lawyers embracing the cause of independence hailed the common law as the guardian of constitutional rights, but there is no evidence that they sought to liberalize the private law in the course of their practice.

That the three luncheon conferences held on Mon-

day were well-attended was brought home to those who attempted to obtain tickets after the middle of the morning. There were none to be had. Two of these conferences were in modern European and Hispanic-American history, at the former of which Bernadotte E. Schmitt was re-elected editor of the *Journal of Modern History* for a three-year period. The third, on social studies in the schools, was addressed by W. E. Dodd, of Chicago, his subject being "Nationalism, the Besetting Sin of Historians."

The session on the Far East was presided over by President of the Association Evarts B. Greene, who called attention to the work of the American Council of Learned Societies in forwarding the study of Oriental history. The Committee on the Promotion of Chinese Studies already has several projects under way, and last summer provision was made for the creation of a temporary committee to study the problem of promoting Japanese studies. In the first paper of the session W. J. Hail, of the College of Wooster, compared the twentieth-century Chinese Nationalist movement with the Taiping Rebellion. The latter, he said, was a premature attempt to institute reforms which made no profound change in the government except on paper. "The leaders were not sufficiently forceful nor the nation sufficiently enlightened." Dr. Sun, "a poor executive but a glorious dreamer," was the prophet of the new movement. He stood for the principles of nationalism, a democratic government, and the exploitation of the resources of China for the benefit of the Chinese. He taught that there would be three stages in the remaking of China; military force would be followed by the training of the masses for government, and this would have its fruition in democracy, constitutionalism, and liberty. Discussing "Japanese Foreign Policy," G. H. Blakslee, of Clark University, outlined that country's relations with China, Russia, and the United States. With the world's densest population in proportion to arable land, Japan's foreign policy is closely related to her internal problems. Conflicting interests in Manchuria have prevented the "friendship policy" toward China from being very successful, though co-operation between the two countries is essential. Japan wishes to preserve friendly relations with Russia, but wants nothing of communism, which, however, with 40 per cent. of Japan's university men unemployed, has gained ground among the intelligentsia. Japan's relations with the United States are the most favorable of the three, racial issues and Japan's economic and political interests in China being the major causes of friction. Wishing a "special interest" in the Far East, Japan feels the need of a strong army and navy, but desires peace. In the final paper of the session G. H. Ryden, of the University of Delaware, traced the activities of the United States in Samoa. A congressional committee, which visited the islands last summer, has recommended that the benevolent despotism of naval governors give way to a régime in which the Samoans shall receive citizenship, a native assembly with legislative power, a governor who is not necessarily a naval officer, and a bill of rights.

A session, the full attendance at which bespoke the timeliness of the topic, was that on the problems of the young scholar. Dumas Malone, of the *Dictionary of American Biography*, in presenting "A Portrait of the Young Scholar," described the young doctor of philosophy in history as patient, industrious, and relatively accurate and fair-minded. He may make a fetish of minor accuracy, and because of fearfulness of factual error be paralyzed in will. In the effort to be disinterested he may lose his emotional power. He may have imagination and a sense of humor, which will enable him to interpret the past and recapture its spirit, but these things the graduate school cannot give him. He doubtless knows more than he revealed on his doctor's examination. Oral examination is a very inadequate test; extensive written examination better. His dissertation has given him valuable training, though it may have dealt with too trivial a subject. Too many dissertations have been published. The dissertation might more profitably be emphasized as a means to the education of the young historian than as a means to the extension of the field of knowledge. During the first years of teaching the young scholar should take advantage of the opportunity to read around his subject. High-pressure methods of production have glutted the market with historical monographs. The key to the problem is not in the hands of the young scholar who is anxious to get ahead, but in those of his elders who should emphasize quality, not quantity. If he does publish, he should give careful attention to literary form, of which the cardinal principle is clarity. It is important that he cultivate and cherish professional friendships, but he should address himself to a wider group than just historians. He will not be false to his ideals if he remains careful and honest, "a workman that needeth not to be ashamed." Carl Russell Fish, of the University of Wisconsin, followed with a paper on "The Problems of the Young Scholar." Including in his purview the years of graduate study, he urged that these preliminaries be gotten over as early as possible. Since it is desirable for the young scholar to be the product of more than one environment, and a year is too short a time to assimilate a new culture, he should pursue his graduate studies at an institution other than that at which he obtained his bachelor's degree. On the subject of matrimony for the graduate student, Professor Fish took a lenient attitude, but admitted that most professors when consulted, some when not, urge against it. Historians, he pointed out, are not licensed, and the profession is thus not free from quacks. This is one of the problems which the young scholar must face. Dixon R. Fox, of Columbia, declared that the historian would do well to keep in touch with his cultural environment. His chief objective is the discovery of human truth and the relation of that truth to human affairs. "The complete historian" must be a human animal. If he concerns himself only with certainties he will never be a real historical scholar. Teaching should be done well, good teaching improving the quality of scholarship in the long run. Hard work is necessary.

The historian is entitled to no more vacation than other professional men. Although no one took advantage of the opportunity for general discussion, the papers provoked much comment after adjournment. If there were those who left the session feeling that certain of their problems were no nearer solution than before, this doubtless indicates that after all the young scholar must work out his own salvation.

Two joint sessions of the National Council for Social Studies and the American Historical Association were devoted to a consideration of methods of teaching. The first of these, presided over by O. M. Dickerson, of State Teachers' College, Greeley, Colorado, dealt with the problems of college and teachers' college. Mark M. Heald, of Rutgers University, reported on further investigations of the orientation courses. C. E. Hedrick, of Marshall College, spoke on the question, "Do Our Present Curricula Supply Adequate Training for Teachers of Social Subjects in the Public Schools?", while the issue, "Who Is Responsible for the Instruction in Teaching the Social Subjects?", was dealt with by D. D. McBrien, of State Teachers' College, Conway, Arkansas.

In the second session, at which A. C. Krey, of the University of Minnesota, presided, T. L. Kelley, of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard, spoke on the "Function of the New Type Tests in the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools," while Guy Stanton Ford, of the University of Minnesota, summarized the progress of the investigation of the social studies in the schools.

"Opportunities for More Effective Research in Colleges" was the theme of a session presided over by C. R. Lingley, of Dartmouth. W. K. Boyd, of Duke, spoke on "Research in American History," while W. C. Binkley, of Vanderbilt, described "Handicaps to Effective Research in Colleges." Bertha H. Putnam, of Mount Holyoke College, in speaking on "The Relation of the Master's Degree to Historical Research in the Colleges," deplored the granting of the M.A. by small colleges lacking in equipment, and by large universities where the "mass production" system is employed. Still worse is the degree obtained by summer school and extension courses with the sole view of obtaining promotion. The better colleges, qualified to give a second degree, might well emulate the large universities in the use of part-time assistants, who will devote two years to their work for the M.A. and who will each year give half their time to assistance in the department.

Three dinner sessions were held on Monday evening. At that of the Agricultural History Society, Ulrich B. Phillips, of Yale, spoke on "Plantations East and South of Suez." The dinner of the Medieval Academy was devoted to informal discussion, presided over by James Westfall Thompson. At the dinner of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Carl Russell Fish, of the University of Wisconsin, in allegorical mood, portrayed the foibles of the academic life against a Martian background. The evening was concluded by a reception tendered to the members of visiting historical associations by the

Trustees of the Isabella Stewart Gardner Museum, at Fenway Court. The dignified beauty of the home of one of the most important private art collections in America will long linger in the memories of those fortunate enough to be present.

The most important tasks still to be completed in the history of England from 1485 to 1815 were surveyed by three specialists in one of the Tuesday morning sessions. Conyers Read, of Philadelphia, covered the period 1485-1603; E. A. Beller, of Princeton, that from 1603-1714, and W. T. Laprade, of Duke, from 1714-1815. The formidable array of subjects still to be investigated does not lend itself to concise statement, but clearly demonstrates that an historical mine already much exploited is not yet "worked out."

The international background of some significant developments in colonial Virginia was the theme of a stimulating paper by W. E. Dodd, of the University of Chicago, read at the session devoted to "New Viewpoints in Southern History." The commercial system of the Restoration, the objective of which was to cripple the commerce of Holland, caused falling tobacco prices, and was opposed by the democratic group in Virginia. Of this opposition Bacon's Rebellion was a manifestation. Its failure was followed by the eclipse of the Virginia democracy and the acquiescence of Virginia in the navigation acts. The price of tobacco continued to fall, and hence the indentured white servant, typical of the seventeenth century, was replaced by a cheaper form of labor, that of the negro slave. P. S. Flippin, of Coker College, read a paper on "Herschel V. Johnson and the Opposition to the Secession Movement in Georgia," his conclusion being that Johnson and not Stephens was the courageous statesman who, in the last few months, sincerely endeavored at least to delay if not to prevent secession by Georgia. That the inadequate salt supply was an important item in the succession of factors which exhausted the resources of the South and led to the collapse of the Confederacy was the thesis of J. L. Sellers, of the University of Nebraska, in his paper on "The Correlation of the Salt and Food Supplies of the Confederacy."

At a joint session of the American Historical Association and the Agricultural History Society, presided over by E. E. Edwards, of the United States Department of Agriculture, Herbert A. Kellar, of the McCormick Library, Chicago, spoke on "Marshall P. Wilder, Patron of Agriculture," while W. T. Hutchinson, of the University of Chicago, discussed "Cyrus Hall McCormick: His Reaper Industry During the Civil War." In a paper on "Gerrit Smith Miller, a Pioneer in the Cattle and Dairy Industry," W. F. Galpin, of Syracuse University, told of the work of Miller in increasing the yield of milk and of butter fat from thoroughbred Holsteins by careful selection and scientific breeding.

Various phases of imperialism were considered in the session devoted to "Europe in Africa." H. R. Rudin, of Yale, in his paper, "Kamerun: a Study in German Colonial Methods, 1884-1905," said that the character of the administration and the exploitation

of Kamerun was largely determined by the work of a private colonial society, the *Deutsche Kolonialgesellschaft*. By its magazine, its books, its newspaper publicity, its public exhibitions, its many lectures throughout the country, the society tried to create a public interest in the colonies and to exert pressure on the government. So significant for Kamerun was the interest of this organization that the paper urged the study of its effect on all the colonies and on colonial policy in general. Speaking on "The Native Question in Nigeria," A. N. Cook, of Temple University, said that despite the wave of anti-imperialism which has swept Asia and Africa since the war, Nigeria has been quiet under British rule. This he ascribed to three factors: the destruction of the slave trade, fetish worship, and abuses attendant on native rule; the establishment of an administrative system based on native institutions; and the application of economic self-determination. G. F. Andrews, of Cambridge, read a paper on "Colonial Development in North Africa From 1830 to the Beginning of the Twentieth Century," while A. P. Scott, of the University of Chicago, discussed "East Africa as a Field for Historical Study."

On Tuesday the American Historical Association and the seven other associations meeting concurrently with it were the guests of Harvard University at a delightful luncheon. The hospitality of Harvard so taxed the resources of the Union that an overflow session was held at the Commodore Hotel. Addressing the gathering at the Union, President A. Lawrence Lowell recalled that he used to be an active member of the Association. "History is coming into its own," Mr. Lowell continued. "What do I mean by that? I mean that people still act with supreme disregard to what has happened when people have acted the same way in the past, and are terribly surprised when the old results happen. There are certain approaches to situations which always bring the same results, with but few exceptions. When a mother country rules another through a Governor appointed by the mother country and a Legislature elected by the people of the other country, you will get trouble every time. This was called to America's attention when she organized the Philippine Government, but it made no difference. Another example is this: when a country, during a war, issues paper money beyond a certain limit, there is bound to be repudiation. The time is coming when historical knowledge will not only be part of a cultivated life, but historians will be consulted. I can remember the time when economists were laughed at and ridiculed. Nowadays no one will make a major decision in business without at least pretending to consult an economist. Of course, they do not always follow his advice, but that is human nature." President Lowell then introduced Professor Halvdan Koht, of the University of Oslo, Norway. Professor Koht commended the support which the American Historical Association has given to the International Committee of Historical Sciences. "Americans," he said, "hesitate to join the League of Nations, but are not afraid

of the historical international." In fact, American historians seem keener to heed the research of European historians than are Europeans to heed those of Americans. He recalled his own experience as a student in a course in American history at the University of Leipzig. The enrollment totalled three: one German, one American, and one Norwegian. Each country, he said, studies history in its own peculiar way. In Norway, historical research has recently centered on social problems. Professors S. E. Morison and A. B. Hart, of Harvard, addressed the session at the Commodore. On Tuesday afternoon the visiting historians were entertained at tea at Radcliffe College, and on Wednesday Boston University was host at a luncheon held at the University Club.

At a general session, devoted to medieval science, held in the lecture room of the Fogg Art Museum, Lynn Thorndike, of Columbia, presented a prospectus for a corpus of medieval scientific literature in Latin. Many scientific medieval works doubtless extant in manuscript are still unknown; many have been discovered, but never printed. Still others have appeared only as incunabula or early editions, which, beside their rarity and inaccessibility, stand in need of critical editing. To include all works on medieval science in Latin seems undesirable: not only would the expense be prohibitive, but other commendable enterprises would be duplicated. Most Latin translations from Greek, Arabic, and Hebrew would also be excluded, as would be works on music, geography, and possibly medicine. Even thus cut to the quick, the project would be a monumental undertaking, which, the difficulty of financing aside, would demand the loyal support, international in scope, of several generations of scholars. In the discussion which followed, Dr. Sarton, of *Isis*, suggested that the rarer materials ought first to be dealt with, while Professor J. W. Thompson, of Chicago, thought that the topic should be limited by the total exclusion of considerable fields, such as that of medieval agriculture. All seemed agreed that the magnitude of the undertaking was equalled by its worth.

Four sectional groups were held on Wednesday morning. One concerned itself with the archeology of Hellenistic-Roman cities. Papers were presented on "Yale Excavations at Doura" (A. R. Bellinger, Yale), "Michigan Excavations at Karanis" (A. E. R. Boak, University of Michigan), and "A Greek Element in Egyptian Dancing" (C. J. Kraemer, Jr., New York University).

Three papers were read at the session on American maritime history. T. J. Wertenbaker, of Princeton, dealt with "Virginia and the West Indian Trade," and R. G. Albion, also of Princeton, discussed "New York and Its Disgruntled Rivals, 1815-1860." In speaking of "The Development of the American Merchant Marine Since 1914," R. E. Peabody, of Essex Institute, sought to correct the prevalent opinion that American shipping died out with the age of sail, and that maritime industry and seafaring are now a thing of the past in the United States.

Feudalism and serfdom constituted the theme of a

third session. Speaking on the "Eclipse of Feudal Military Service in England," A. E. Prince, of Queen's University, traced the modification of knight service by scutage and by the principle of the "quota," and its final replacement by the use of troops serving for pay. S. K. Mitchell, of Yale, speaking on "Tallage," told of the failure to increase the royal revenue by expanding this source of income, failure being due to the lack of taxing authority of the sovereign, the opposition of the strong customary law, and the interpretation of the courts. A paper on "Communes and Other Towns" was offered by Carl Stephenson, of Cornell.

At a joint session of the American Historical Association and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, presided over by F. L. Paxson, of the University of Wisconsin, R. P. Bieber, of Washington University, spoke on "The Discovery of Gold in the Pike's Peak Region, 1857-1858." E. M. Violette, of Louisiana State University, in his paper on "Donelson Caffery—a Louisiana Democrat Out of Line," told of a Senator in opposition to free silver and to the Cuban policy of the United States. J. D. Hicks, of the University of Nebraska, in discussing "Middle-of-the-Road Populism," told of the ineffectual efforts to keep the Populist party from uniting with the older political groups. The failure so to do was mourned by professional third-party politicians and ultra-radical editors, but the rank and file of those who had once been Populists were fairly content to claim responsibility for having forced Democrats and Republicans alike to carry on the work that the third party had begun.

The climax of the convention was the annual dinner in the ballroom of the Copley Plaza, at which the members of the Association were the guests of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the New England Historical Genealogical Society, the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, the American Antiquarian Society, the Essex Institute, and the Committee on Local Arrangements. It was an impressive occasion, with eight hundred seated at table together. Professor S. E. Morison, before giving an historical account of the organizations acting as hosts, justified his selection as toastmaster on the ground that he was the sole individual to be a member of them all. He then introduced President Evarts B. Greene, who announced the award of prizes as follows: the Justin Winsor Prize went to Leonard Woods Labaree for his monograph, *British Colonial Government, a Study of the Colonial System before 1783*; Bernadotte E. Schmitt received the George Louis Beer Prize for his book, *The Coming of the War*; while the Jusserand Medal was awarded to Otto Vossler for his work, *Der Amerikanischen Revolutionsideale in ihrem Verhältniss zu den Europaischen; Untersucht an Thomas Jefferson*. The Association then listened to the presidential address.

At the annual business meeting, held in the Fogg Art Museum, Dr. J. F. Jameson presented a minute on Professor Ephraim D. Adams, of Stanford, First Vice-President of the Association, who but for his

untimely death last August would logically that day have been elected President. The list of members claimed by death during the past year included such names as William Stearns Davis, A. L. P. Dennis, Edward Raymond Turner, and Claude Halstead Van Tyne.

Several important changes were made in the Constitution. Hitherto the eight elected members of the Council have been chosen annually, although it has been customary for them to serve for three successive years. It is now provided that they be elected for a four-year term, two members retiring each year. In 1927 the Council, for the transaction of necessary business when it was not in session, created a small Executive Committee, the members of which resided within easy access of one another. This procedure is now officially authorized, the Council being empowered to elect annually an Executive Committee of not more than six members, which shall include the Secretary and Treasurer, and may include not

more than two persons not members of the Council. For several years the Association has been looking towards a permanent Secretariat, and a committee is still working on the problem. With this in view, another amendment gave constitutional status to the office of Executive Secretary, which it is proposed to fill as soon as funds are available.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, a member of President Hoover's commission which is making plans for the celebration of the bicentennial of the birth of Washington, spoke briefly on various phases of this project. At his suggestion the President of the Association was authorized to appoint a committee to which the Commission can turn for advice as to how best it may reach teachers of history and pupils in schools and colleges.

Carl Becker, of Cornell, was elected President of the Association for 1931, and other officers were chosen as recorded below. It was decided to meet next December in Minneapolis.

## American Historical Association

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## Report on Meetings of the Sessions of the National Council of the Social Studies with the American Historical Association in Boston, December 29, 30 and 31, 1930

BY DR. CHARLES A. COULOMB

At the recent meeting of the American Historical Association at Boston there were three joint sessions of the Association and the National Council for Social Studies. In addition to these there was a luncheon conference at the Copley Plaza Hotel on Monday.

The first session, 10.30 A. M., Monday, December 29th, of the College and Teachers' College sections of the National Council was under the chairmanship of Professor Knowlton, of New York University, in the absence of Professor Dickerson, State Teachers' College, Greeley, Colorado.

The first paper was by Professor Heald, of Rutgers University, who reported on an investigation of the Orientation courses, and pointed out that the survey of two hundred college and university Orientation freshmen courses made two years ago showed that about one-half could be classified as true to their names, historically speaking. Boston University started such a course in 1888. The World War emphasized the need for such a generalized course—origins rather than solutions became the aim. The earlier problem courses appear to be losing ground during the last six years. Real introductory courses seemed to include only about sixty out of one hundred and ninety so called. A few colleges have organized rather complete programs of orientation in all major fields. They are rather narrowly limited as to subject-matter, and are all held strictly to major divisions of the social studies; among these the speaker included psychology. These seemed to be effective means of adjusting our curricular to changing modern needs. Only one instance of abandonment was noted, and that was on account of staff problems rather than on account of dissatisfaction with the course. Ensuing discussion developed, the fact that there were seen to be great difficulties in determining and testing the outcomes in such a course.

Professor Hedrick, of Marshall College, took up the question of the preparation of teachers of social subjects in the teachers' colleges. He pointed out that the chief function in such institutions is teaching and not research. The report indicated that there is a distinctly lower standard of scholarship in teachers' colleges than in other colleges and universities.

Many are teaching in these institutions without any degree at all. Institutions listed as normal schools have a yet lower standard of scholarship in the teaching force than teachers' colleges. The social studies, however, are not any worse off than other subjects in these institutions, since the only lines of study in which the teachers had better preparation were education and science. Michigan Teachers' College was mentioned as having specifically set forth standards which had to be met by those wishing positions. The speaker pointed out the great diversification of courses which aim to train teachers of the social sciences. Many of these courses seemed to have little relation to the work these teachers were expected to do. The speaker cited Physical Education, Criminology, Real Estate Law, Insurance, and many other courses that did not seem to fill the needs of teachers of social sciences, or when they did, were graduate courses training primarily in research rather than in teaching technique. In some cases additional courses were offered for those who were short of high school studies.

Professor O'Brien, of State Teachers' College, Conway, Arkansas, was unable to be present. His paper, "Responsibility for the Introduction in Teaching Social Subjects," was read by Miss Carmichael. A study of catalogue and answers to questionnaires of junior and senior class A teachers' colleges, showed that the people in charge of this training in about three-fourths of all the cases were almost evenly divided between history and social studies. There were many other combinations even to a combination of History and English. Most of these teachers have M.A. degrees. Out of seventy-six colleges reporting there were only thirty-five Ph.D.'s on the staff in social science and history. On the basis of one Ph.D. to a college there are forty-one not represented by this degree, which denotes not merely research ability but wide scholarship. This record is not nearly so good as in liberal arts colleges. Some history (subject-matter) is required in fifty-four out of sixty, in a few no history is required. Comparatively few require a course in methods of teaching. In eleven cases the preparation of history teachers is under the direction of the Educa-

tion Department and of thirty-six cases under the History Department. Few schools have practice work, and where provided, it is frequently under some other subject, especially if history is a minor.

Professor Risley discussed Professor Heald's paper. He expressed his pleasure at the large number of Orientation courses in social science. He pointed out that the fads of some teachers give odd slants to courses which have little to do with history. The aims in teaching should be more definite and specific. Go as you please is not good. The speaker made a comparison with football. The examinations are strenuous and public, and are conducted under highly trying and physically exhausting conditions. With the coach there is no go as you please, no great amount of lecture work, but discipline. The two aims given for education are—first, to produce leadership; second, to develop individuality, seemed to mean that discipline is to be abandoned. Professor Risley believed the proper way to develop individuality is through a rigidity of discipline.

Professor Arnold, of State Normal School, Bridgewater, Massachusetts, when discussing Professor Hedrick's paper, pointed out that many teachers in teachers' colleges get positions because they have been successful teachers rather than because they have higher degrees with perhaps mediocre teaching ability. The cause of inadequate training in training schools is the large number of subjects that are included in social studies, and that must be prepared for in order that certificate requirements may be met.

Dr. Trimble, of State Teachers' College of East Stroudsburg, Pa., pointed out that teachers in such institutions are limited by what the state courses of study and state certificates require. There is no time to give content courses in teachers' colleges; prospective teachers must come prepared with knowledge of their subjects. Perhaps what is needed is a balance between content and method.

The luncheon which followed, in the absence of Dr. Dawson, was presided over by Professor Krey, of the University of Minnesota. Professor Dodd, of the University of Chicago, presented a paper on "Nationalism, the Beseating Sin of Historians." Professor Dodd, in introducing his talk, changed the subject slightly and announced that his paper would be a presentation of the affirmative side of the question, "Does Patriotism Kill History?" He quoted from a number of historians of the last century, including Von Ranke, Bancroft, and Rhodes, to show that whatever their theories may have been as to the attitude the historian should take, they almost invariably ended by a compromise with the truth. He quoted a German historian as saying that the historian can be neither a patriot nor a Christian. John Quincy Adams says the same thing in his diary in 1843. His emotions led him to urge the break-up of the Union. Von Ranke, in his later years, became highly loyal to the German state. Bancroft writes in a spirit of nationalism. His countrymen are always right and heroic. Others, especially the English, are craven and unscrupulous. "History is God

working in examples." "American society is the latest and best of forms of social organizations." Rhodes gives due care to the service men of the North and the South in a history of the Civil War, because they were all Americans. In Beveridge's "John Marshall," no attempt is made to veil the author's nationalism, and it is difficult to resist his appeal. His life of Lincoln is half-finished and leaves Douglas the hero of the work. In the part completed, Lincoln, Calhoun and the abolitionists are reconciled, and Lincoln is great because he saved the national solidarity, right or wrong. The speaker pointed out that historians sometimes make causes their themes rather than countries or nations. Does this attitude destroy the value of their work, and if it does, is the situation remediable? Is not the gospel of nationalism becoming as obsolete as the doctrine of states' rights.

Professor Schlessinger, in discussing the address, agreed with Dr. Dodd's major contention that we have occupied our minds too much with the idea that our historians are perhaps over-patriotic. We should, he thought, take some time to understand the sources and reasons for the growth of national feeling both in Europe and the United States. He also thought that the country had successfully surmounted three barriers of national unity: (1) We have no language that we could specifically call our own, and that was common in all the states. This was surmounted by the work of Noah Webster and others; (2) Sectional patriotism was settled in favor of national unity by the war of 1861-65; (3) The immigration problem since 1870-80 has been solved by the recent quota law. It is fair to say, the speaker thought, that the need for emphasis on unity and nationality has only recently passed and not seventy-five years ago, according to Dr. Dodd.

In conclusion, the writer quoted from an address of President Wilson made in 1899, to show that the late President, whose biographer is Dr. Dodd, had a strong nationalistic slant in his thought at that time.

"We have been told that it is unpatriotic to criticize public action. Well, if it is, then there is a deep disgrace resting upon the origins of this Nation. This Nation originated in the sharpest sort of criticism of public policy. We originated, to put it in the vernacular, in a kick, and if it be unpatriotic to kick—why, then, the grown man is unlike the child. We have forgotten the very principle of our origin if we have forgotten how to object, how to resist, how to agitate, how to pull down and build up, even to the extent of revolutionary practices if it be necessary to readjust matters."

In the Monday afternoon session, Professor Kelley, of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, who is working with the Committee on the Investigation of the Social Studies as expert adviser on testing, read a paper on the function of the new type testing. Professor Kelley pointed out the difficulties, particularly that of determining what the outcomes of the social studies are; in measurement

of basic values it is very difficult in history as in other subjects. He believed, however, it could be done by objective tests. The following tentative objectives have been formulated by the committee of tests: (1) They (the pupils) should have understanding of improved social institutions through which society functions; (2) Skill in use of sources of information about society; (3) Points of view, interests, and attitudes, i. e., tolerance; (4) Social orientation or systematic knowledge of social organization; (5) Actual participation in social activities. The last seems at present to be most difficult to test. The speaker pointed out the importance of the knowledge of results in social studies, and that we must be able to demonstrate to others than their sponsors, values of suggested methods and results, if the new ideas are to have social value. Tests must measure teachers as well as pupils, and so check over- and under-emphasis by the teacher with predilections for certain points of view.

Professor G. S. Ford, of the University of Minnesota, gave a brief summary on the progress of the Committee. He pointed out that the Historical Association has made itself responsible for the teaching of history and its cognate studies in all grades, and that more largely than any other organizations is composed of actual teachers who must naturally be interested in the details and problems of the teacher's task. One result has been the appointment of a commission of fifteen members representing all cognate groups. This fuses the efforts of all interested so that any differences of point of view can be worked out around the table. The first support of the Commission came from the Commonwealth Fund. Later this fund withdrew from its educational activities, but this early support enabled the Commission to secure data that justified and secured support from the Carnegie Foundation. The Commission is feeling its way to the point where they can lay hands on certain necessary fundamental major problems. There is a sub-committee on objectives, under the direction of Professor Beale; on content and study material, under Professor Tryon; one on teacher training under Professor Bagley; one on testing by Superintendent Ballow, Washington, D. C., with Professor Kelley, of Harvard, as testing expert, and a sub-committee concerned with the investigation of so-called "pressure groups." The statement of objectives has been about completed in its first draft. However, the first four divisions interlock and work much in parallel, so that it seems almost imperative to present reports of all sub-committees at the same time. In addition there are literally scores of other minor investigations and sub-committees by constantly working on some phase or another of one of these questions. The working of the Committee deserves sympathetic reception by teachers as the greatest and most sustained effort in this line that the Committee has ever done.

Tuesday morning Professor Gambrill discussed a new approach to the Modern Problems Course. He disclaimed any novelty, however, in his presentation.

The courses usually known as Problems of Democracy Courses are intended to be finishing courses in social studies in high schools, and generally disregard subject lines. There has grown up a great variation in textbooks and courses in this field. These courses at present seem to have certain common features: first, they are finishing courses; second, they are comprehensive, dealing with all of the social studies; third, while the word "problem" is generally included in their titles, the courses give scant attention to problems, but are rather surveys of the field; fourth, they very largely ignore problems of democracy. Such problems as may be included are those peculiar to society anywhere, and are not those of democracy *per se*. The speaker submitted the following suggestions as to the nature of such a final course. (1) The idea of direct attack of civic problems is sound; however, many teachers seem to be unwilling or unable to apply the principles of criticism for use in studying about the Middle Ages to problems of to-day. (2) Such a course should not repeat what has gone before. The present Problem Course has become a sort of advanced survey of the work of Grade Eight or Nine. The new course should not be so. (3) To be a real study of problems these should be clearly defined as such, and should not be merely a topic like Immigration. The job is for the pupil or class to discover how certain things can be done. With regard to immigration, what seems to be the best thing to do? (4) Lastly, such a course will involve the wide use of books—reference books, bibliographies, critical estimates of books used and training in how to use them. Such a course cannot be given through textbook study, either with or without discussion. The speaker had much doubt as to the extent to which high school students go to libraries for material to answer specific questions. Do they choose haphazard or discriminate? Do they choose between original or second-hand writing?

The course to justify itself must be a real course in problems. Many students feel that they have solved the problems by writing generalities, or having a lively discussion, which may not bring out real facts, much less a generalized judgment of them. The course proposed had two parts, one—a study of public opinion; two—the problems of democracy and how public opinion can be brought about to solve them. In practice the study of public opinion got about one-third of the time—at present it is neglected or omitted. Such topics are introduced as—How individuals get their opinions? How do groups? Manufacturers are protectionists—why? Why states' rights in the South? Why nationalists in the North?

There are many cautions to be observed in handling such a course. In order to avoid difficulties we need to know the tricks our mind will play on us. Section two of this is—How opinions spread? What is public opinion? Numbers or weight?—weight or energy? As to the problems, the first thing was to discover what is needed for the study problem. Apparently these needs are data, experience, and specialists or experts for the facts.

The schools should not lend themselves to propaganda, but there should be plenty of such material in the classroom, both pro and con. This must be tested carefully for fact as opposed to opinion. This study of problems took one-third of the time. The remaining third could be devoted to a study of international relations, or industrial or moral problems. Much caution is needed in dealing with all of these, and thoughtless consideration of them may be loaded with trouble for all concerned.

In the discussion Professor Kidjen, of Newton High School, felt that Professor Gambrill was optimistic with respect to the absence of dynamite in these last topics, no matter how they are handled. We should develop in pupils the ability to keep a suspended judgment, get the arguments of both sides, but should not in our classes attempt to formulate an opinion.

In the absence of Professor Kimmel, who was also to discuss the paper, Professor Krey paid tribute to a courageous attempt to solve a problem which we all

recognize as a serious one, and expressed gratitude for Professor Gambrill's effort.

At the end of the session there was a brief meeting of the National Council of Social Studies, at which the following officers were elected:

President, Professor R. K. Tryon.

First Vice-President, Professor E. S. Morgan.

Second Vice-President, Professor W. G. Kimmel.

Secretary and Treasurer, Prof. Bessie L. Pierce.

The following members for the Council:

Professor Howard Wilson, of Harvard.

Professor Frances Moorehouse, of Hunter's College.

The directors were authorized to support Professor Kimmel's department in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* to such an extent as they saw fit. There was no formal report from Miss Pierce, Treasurer, who was unable to be at the meeting, but it was informally stated that the Council treasury was in a flourishing condition.

## History Teaching in Other Lands

### II. Aims and Content of History Teaching in Elementary Schools

(Continued)

ANNOTATED TRANSLATION BY DRS. JOS. STRAYER, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY, AND RUTH McMURRY, TEACHERS' COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*Poland:* "The teachers must adhere to verified and established facts. Consequently, historical truth is the guide and the aim of history teaching."

This instruction, however, has a civic purpose—"the development of men, useful to the social group, who are prepared to understand the present through a correct knowledge of the past." It aims at the development of patriotic sentiment, based upon history, without chauvinism and in the spirit of pacifism.

In the elementary schools the history of Poland is taught with a background of world history. The program of civic education remains separate from that of history until the seventh year; there, however, it takes a preponderant place.

As the history courses are just being reorganized, the author of the report does not discuss this subject further.

*Roumania:* The purpose of history teaching is to train subjects "in whom the patriotic spirit may be developed through the knowledge of what their ancestors have done to preserve their country and to contribute to its progress." The idea of national solidarity seems to predominate, with attention to a certain moral and patriotic culture. The new school "hopes to be able to give the child the idea of progress and the optimistic conviction that, compared with the past, the present has made life better." Whenever the lessons give an opportunity, "the moral idea of the impelling force of patriotism" must be made evident. The official instructions give only general directions. In the third class, for children nine years old, the history of Roumania begins with its

most striking events in the form of biography. Roumanian history—in somewhat fuller form—continues in the elementary schools and the courses seem to give an important place to the question of national unity up to and including "the formation of present-day Roumania, which has attained its ethnical frontiers under King Ferdinand I."

An effort is sometimes made, however, to show the interdependence and the synchronization of historic events in Europe, such as, for example, great inventions like printing or great thought movements like the French Revolution of 1789 or that of 1848. An attempt is made to explain historically the similarities of Roumania and the West.

It seems that the present tendency is to increase the importance of the history of foreign countries, either neighboring or western, as well as that of the ethnic minorities in their relations with Roumanian history.

As the courses in history during the seven years of normal school are the same as those of the *lycées* and *collèges*, the author of the report will discuss them later in his account of secondary education.

*Sweden:* The plan of instruction issued by the King on October 31, 1909, gives the following aim for history teaching in the elementary schools: "Its purpose is to give the children an outline of the history of our people, suited to their age and their development, in particular giving them information about famous persons, characteristic events, and facts of importance that have contributed to the development of culture, or that are needed to understand the

life and social conditions of our time; and thus to create in the hearts of the children a true love of country and a desirable social spirit."

Civic education is closely connected with the teaching of history. The courses of study speak of "History with civic instruction."

Few instructions, however, are as clearly directed toward the teaching of pacifism as those of Sweden. "The teaching of history should be planned and carried out in such a way that the progressive development of peaceful culture and of social order through the centuries becomes the main tendency. Accounts and descriptions which touch on military events cannot be omitted: it should be pointed out, however, that, as culture advances, the aversion to war as the instigator of misfortune and destruction has always increased. Attention should be drawn to the sufferings which war has always brought about, and emphasis should be laid upon the differences between wars waged to defend the independence and the rights of a nation and those caused by designs for conquest or similar motives."

"When we have to speak of wars caused by idealistic motives, as, for example, the participation of Sweden in the Thirty Years' War, we dwell not only upon the glorious appearances—the victories and the praise of the Protestants. We also give the bitter memories of that glorious time." Offensive wars are denounced no matter what nation may be the offender: wars for national preservation shall be praised no matter what nation is defending itself (Copenhagen in 1659, for example). The teacher should combat the beginning of hatred or of unfriendliness toward another people, and should remind the pupils that good understanding among the nations is a necessary condition for the common progress of humanity. Finally, the pupils must know that the "heroes in the work of peace" also deserve gratitude and admiration. "Thus the teaching of history becomes ethical in the best sense of the word, provided that the teacher knows how to make history itself speak without pointing out the moral on all occasions."

The systematic study of history occurs only in the last two years of the elementary school. During the first year stories, narratives, and excursions in the neighborhood are relied upon.

"Continuation schools" exist in Sweden, but they are courses for adults and are concerned mainly with instruction in civics. History is given in them only when the local authorities are interested in it, and the author states "with sorrow" that the instruction in history, which is a cultural subject, is eclipsed by the so-called more practical studies; he sees in this the result of the materialistic preoccupations of our time.

In the normal schools the time given for history instruction is two hours a week. The purpose is "to explain historic evolution to the students, so that different events are seen in their inner relations." To attain this end, the history of Sweden and world history are studied in relation to each other. Events and personalities in Sweden must be seen against the

background of world history. Consequently, the world history of each period must be studied first.

The textbook is the basis of instruction, sometimes supplemented by the professor's lectures. An attempt is also made to increase the historical training of the students by means of rather extended regional studies, for which they may have to interpret manuscript sources. This, however, is often interfered with by material difficulties, by lack of time, and also by the students' lack of intellectual maturity.

Impartiality and tolerance are insisted upon (in spite of some criticism on this score from the Catholics).

*Switzerland:* For the middle and higher classes of the elementary schools, the programs require "the awakening of the pupil's interest in and understanding of the problems of public life, so that he may be prepared to take part in it."

The fact must be considered that, because of the geography and the diversity of races, of language, and of religions, it seems difficult for Switzerland to constitute a nation, and it must be added that Switzerland is a thoroughfare. The Swiss, however, are among the most patriotic of peoples. "The elementary school is the guardian of tradition, the fertile ground from which the true Swiss character and spirit must arise." It rests on a very large autonomy of the communities, the sovereignty of the cantons, and the Federal Constitution. "But the awakening of patriotic sentiment is only a means of leading the pupils studying history toward an ideal of humanity." In this ideal, peace among the nations is included.

History instruction does not begin until the fourth year. For the most part this is history of the native land, and general history is included in the treatment only in so far as it is absolutely necessary for an understanding of local or national history (as, for example, the case of the wars with Burgundy in the fifteenth century)....In the upper classes Swiss history and world history up to the present are studied, but no attempt at a continuous treatment has been made—only the most important events are taught.

A large place is given to civic instruction, and it is in this connection that the question of the League of Nations is discussed [in the upper classes of the higher elementary school].

In the higher elementary schools history instruction acquaints the pupil with the historic development of their national institutions and the great events of world history. The instruction is more systematic [than in the parallel upper classes of the elementary school] and tries to awaken an understanding of present-day life, for from these higher elementary schools come the men who later on are often called upon to exercise a decisive influence in public life. Ancient history is emphasized. The textbooks give an idea of the character of the instruction, and the author of the report cites those most commonly used. The cantonal authorities select the texts. (The Federal Government merely gives a map of the Confederation to each school.)

The normal schools reserve two to three hours a

week for history. In addition to the courses given by the professors, there are exercises such as lectures, study of source materials, and critical research. The problems are usually treated in a purely scientific manner.

The author of the report complains that too much time is spent in the study of ancient history, of the middle ages, or of the French Revolution at the expense of the modern period.

*Czechoslovakia:* "The teaching of history should not be reduced to a simple enumeration of events, of kings, of dates, and of battles. Its purpose is, above all, to give an understanding of the meaning of national and general history. An effort is made in history, as is done earlier in the study of the locality and in civic instruction, to develop in the heart of the pupil the sentiment of love for the native land, loyalty toward the state, tolerance toward other nations, and the desire for peace." (On the anniversary of the birth of Comenius the schools organize a half-hour ceremony in honor of peace.) The desire for an effective civic education shows clearly in the courses of study. This is explained by the situation in the Czechoslovakian state.

A somewhat detailed study of the locality forms the basis for the teaching of history, which is given only in the last three years of the elementary schools. An hour or an hour and a half a week is devoted to history instruction.

The courses of study are very brief, the details being fixed by the teachers with the approval of the school council of the district. Those drawn up for the elementary school include "narratives taken from the history of the Czechoslovakian state and nation from the earliest times to the present, given in chronological order. The teacher is to introduce elementary information from general history about the great events and great figures in the past of mankind, and about the protection of historic and artistic monuments."

In the normal schools, in which history is taught for two hours a week for four years, civic instruction continues to be combined with history. "In all classes it is important to examine social and political problems with reference to civic instruction; the evolution of institutions should receive particular examination." The purpose of history teaching in the normal schools is "especially to throw light upon the great events and historic figures which are important for the Czechoslovakian state."

The course includes, in the first year, history from prehistoric times to the end of the Roman Empire; in the second year, the middle ages; and more especially the development of the Czechoslovakian state until 1526; in the third year, modern times up to 1848; and in the fourth year, the struggle for the defense of the political rights of the Czechs since 1848; and a review of all Czech history. The study of the history of the commune and of the province, and of the protection of historic and artistic monuments, is taken up again.

The history instruction is completed and broadened

within the limits of the free time left, by the reading of appropriate extracts from historic works and by discussions of these selections, "and likewise by visits to museums and collections."

*Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (Russia):* The thing which we consider essential is not to make learned historical scholars of the children, but to develop habits. In Marxism, theory cannot be separated from practice, and this is true in our instruction, which is based on Marxism. The principal purpose of our system of education is to give social experience. We prepare future workers for socialistic society, and not little scholars. The author of the report continues: "If the objection is made that such a method of studying history does not give the pupils a picture of the general development of civilization, we answer that such an aim is impossible of realization with children 11 or 12 years old (historical instruction in our primary school being divided between the third and fourth year). Again, the principal motivating force of this development is the class struggle. Now our course gives plenty of examples of this struggle, and the examples are very striking. Our pupils thus have every chance to understand how history is made."

"The most important part of our instruction in history consists of the history of the modern period—the development of society and the class struggle during the last few centuries. This course is only a part of the general course on 'social science.' The absence of ancient and medieval history will perhaps astonish those who are used to traditional courses in history. But the objective for which we are striving is the training of a generation which can intelligently take part in the creation of socialist society. For this end it is enough to perceive clearly the events which have brought about the great social struggle of our days."

Thus there is not a history course in the sense usually given the phrase; that is to say, a chronological picture of the life of mankind in the past. The important thing for the pupil is to become "acquainted with social facts," and especially with that historical fact which explains the course of history—the class struggle. "It will not be too difficult for them to understand the history of each country and each epoch according to this same method." A course in history cannot begin with the most remote times. "The pupil can have no immediate impression of the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans. He should grasp social facts directly and through his own experience. He will study them in his environment, in his family, in his village. Each household of peasants, for example, constitutes a productive unit; the pupil should observe the tasks of each member of the family, the work done, the way of spending leisure time; thus he will understand the division of work in the family. He will visit a factory<sup>1</sup> and observe himself the working of a machine, the time necessary for a certain piece of work, the duties of each workman, etc. He will in the same way observe the present organization of his country." This description

of the country (in its present state) ends with a chapter on the formation of the U.S.S.R., of which the author of the report gives a summary. The following topics are among those listed: "Relations between peasants and lords in the period of serfdom; Changes in the life of peasants and landed proprietors after the abolition of serfdom; The Czarist government as a government of great lords and capitalists; Religion and the church in the service of the landowner; Picture of the revolutionary struggle; Struggle of the workers against the capitalists; Fall of absolutism in February, 1917; Revival of the Soviets; Activity of the Bolsheviks and of Lenin; Struggle of the great landlords against the Soviets; Intervention of foreign capitalistic governments; Victory of the Red Army of the Soviets over the white armies."

Study of the local environment makes it possible to take up other historic facts; economic life will raise the question of communication throughout the ages. "This gives a pretext for a little course in the history of technical development. In the same way the history of agricultural methods can be taken up." This approach through the locality will lead the children to realize to which of the forty<sup>2</sup> nationalities which compose the U.S.S.R. they belong. The Ukrainian will begin by learning the history of the Ukraine. "Their ancestors sometimes wage war with one another. Here the task becomes more delicate. The textbooks of the period of the Czars told the exploits of the Russians in wars which forced Russian domination on other peoples. We draw the attention of the child to the civilization peculiar to each of these peoples, to their losses under the dominion of the czars, to their heroic struggle for liberty. Thus the child will grow accustomed to the thought that his people is not the only people in the U.S.S.R. which has the right of existence, that his country is a union of free people with equal rights. From this point there is only a step to the idea that there are many people on the earth, and that all the inhabitants of the world constitute, or might constitute, a great union similar to our own."

The same method is used to bring in the history of foreign nations. In connection with the commercial relations of the U.S.S.R., if the United States is mentioned, the question of the discovery of the new world, of Christopher Columbus, of the colonial question "rises naturally." "The children already know the struggle for liberty of the colonies of the Russian Empire, the Caucasus, and Turkestan. Thus the oppression of colonial peoples is known. Does such oppression exist at the present? Then comes the examples of India, of the races of Africa, of the East Indies, and of semi-colonies, such as China. The peoples of colonies are always the victims of capitalistic oppression."

If we now pass to the fifth, sixth, and seventh years of the seven-year school, the method remains the same. The subjects for observation are furnished by "work-books," which the author of the report contrasts with the "textbooks" of the old régime.

In the work-book for the fifth year, the pupil will find descriptions of factories, ideas on labor organizations, information about societies for young people and children,<sup>3</sup> and even a description of the school under the Czarist government and in the Soviet State. In the sixth and seventh years, the purely historical part of the book becomes more important and clearly predominates in the seventh year in the work-book on social science. "In the book for the sixth year, we have already important facts in the history of other countries, the Industrial Revolution in England in the eighteenth century, the French Revolution, the labor movement in Europe in the nineteenth century, the Commune of 1871, etc." In the book for the seventh year, "among other things, the student finds a comparative table of the constitutions of the U.S.S.R. and the great democracies of Europe and America, the translation of the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen,' the resolutions of the socialistic congresses of Brussels (1891), Stuttgart (1907), Basle (1912), etc."<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The Soviet government makes a special effort to keep the schools closely connected with economic life by these visits to factories and by employing intelligent young workmen as leaders of social activities and even as teachers.

<sup>2</sup> According to recent statistics, there are 189 nationalities speaking 149 languages in the whole Soviet Union.

<sup>3</sup> The Komsomol (Communist Union of Youth) is an organization which prepares young people (14-23) for entrance to the Communist Party. It is led by younger members of the party, and in return supplies leaders to the Pioneers, the organization of children which likewise tries to prepare its members for activity in the Soviet State.

<sup>4</sup> The following excerpt is from Letter Nineteen, concerning "The Five-Year Plan of Public Economy in the Course of Social Studies in the Schools of Higher Type," issued by the People's Commissariat of Education of RSFSR, in 1929. Since it was published after the Five-Year Plan was launched, it is of interest as showing the most recent developments in the social studies. This material was supplied through the courtesy of Dr. George Counts, Associate Director of the International Institute, and Miss Nucia Perlmutter, Research Assistant in the International Institute, Teachers' College, Columbia University.

"The programs of social studies were prepared in the spring of 1927 and appeared about two years ago. A number of important Party resolutions (The 15th Congress of the Party and the 16th Party Conference), as well as the decisions passed by congresses of Soviets, introduced and continue to introduce much that is of great importance in the work of social studies. The programs of 1927 are therefore considerably out of date at present.

"During the past two years the school itself introduced into the programs a considerable number of corrections. The sharpened class struggle, and, as a consequence of it, the intensified warfare on the ideological front called forth a number of changes and additions in the field of anti-religious and international education. The program of the *Komintern*, which was adopted after the appearance of the programs of social studies, could not but find its reflection in the work of social studies. In actual life the teacher of social studies has already changed the existing programs, and continues to do so all the time in the light of changing events.

# A Study in the Intellectual Life of Colonial America

BY ALFRED P. JAMES, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

Twenty years ago it was my privilege as a graduate student in the University of Chicago to take work with Professor Marcus Wilson Jernegan in the social and economic history of the American colonies. In lecture courses in this field, to which Professor Jernegan has mainly devoted his efforts,<sup>1</sup> he was a pioneer in American universities. His outlines, lecture notes, and methods have been the foundation of a similar course which at intervals for nearly a decade I have endeavored to teach in the University of Pittsburgh.

In Professor Jernegan's instruction, factors or forces in human society and history were emphasized. They are, indeed, matters of both stimulating interest and profound importance. Sometimes they are simply classified as for instance into heredity and environment, or possibly into a group of three, the organic nature of man, the social heritage, and the material environment. Probably as often they are elaborately classified. Professor Jernegan at that time divided them into six categories: ethnic, social, economic, political or constitutional, religious and intellectual.

Such a classification is open to criticism in the matters of definition and of overlapping, but all classification is an artificial contrivance intended for mental convenience, and this classification furnishes a very satisfactory organization for a study of historical materials on American colonial history.

Elaborate subdivisions are possible in each of the six categories of this scheme, but in no one of them more so than in the last, the intellectual factors. One is almost appalled at the work which opens up before a student who ventures into this aspect of history. Yet there is little doubt that, when even partly grasped, intellectual history is more fascinating than any other. The intellectual product of human society is the very flower of human civilization. Anyone who endeavors to teach the social and economic history of any period is almost sure to be lured into an effort to grasp the rôle of intellectual factors.

In 1927 there came from the press a remarkable volume, *The Colonial Mind, 1620-1800*, by Vernon Louis Parrington, Professor of English in the University of Washington.<sup>2</sup> The additional stimulus of this book led me to offer a course at the University of Pittsburgh on *The Intellectual History of the American Colonies*, with it as a guide and a point of departure.

As the title of the book, and, also, the more comprehensive title of the series imply, the emphasis is upon thought rather than upon culture. The work throughout the course was confined to ideas, opinions, beliefs and attitudes on the part of Colonial Americans who left behind writings in which one could trace such things. The course, highly experimental

in character, was tried out in three classes, one composed of day students, another of night students, largely teachers, and the third with Saturday students, also largely teachers.

First of all, it was decided to formulate in advance a list of the ideas, opinions, beliefs, and attitudes which we ought to look for in colonial writings. This took from six to eight weeks of reading and discussion, with students and instructor working in collaboration. Each student was required to read at this time about eight hundred pages of material and hand in an analysis of items of thought discovered in the reading.

A copy of Jernegan's *The American Colonies* was secured by each student. This was read both for general background and for possible suggestion of items for our list. Among the other works consulted in this preliminary work of analysis were: J. H. Randall's *The Making of the Modern Mind*,<sup>3</sup> P. V. N. Myers' *History as Past Ethics*,<sup>4</sup> William A. Dunning's *The History of Political Theories, from Luther to Montesquieu*,<sup>5</sup> F. W. Coker's *Readings in Political Philosophy*,<sup>6</sup> G. P. Gooch's *The History of English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century*,<sup>7</sup> Woodbridge Riley's *American Thought*,<sup>8</sup> and *The Cambridge History of American Literature*, Volume I.<sup>9</sup>

In addition and for the observation of both continuity and contrast, a survey was made of *Middletown* by Robert S. Lynd and Helen Merrill Lynd,<sup>10</sup> and of *Religion and the Modern World* by John Herman Randall and John Herman Randall, Jr.<sup>11</sup> In fact, almost any reading recalled by the instructor or students which threw light on our program was drawn upon for assistance.

During the weeks while the students were doing the preliminary reading, the instructor endeavored to lay foundations for work in American colonial thought by reading selected notes from Randall's *Making of the Modern Mind*, Myers' *History as Past Ethics*, Gooch's *The History of Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century*, and from *Middletown*.

A part of each class meeting was given up to the collation of items for our list. Carefully compiled in a card index, these items gradually accumulated. Finally they numbered, not discounting inevitable overlapping, about one hundred and thirty-six items, which were classified under the five heads: 1. Religious or theological, 2. Political, 3. Sociological, 4. Economic, 5. Cultural or Aesthetic. A hurried attempt was made to subdivide each item in the list. The final result may have little scientific value, but as a working scheme it has proved successful. With all its defects, it is as follows:

AN ATTEMPT AT AN ANALYSIS OF THE IDEAS, ATTITUDES,  
AND BELIEFS OF AMERICAN COLONIAL LEADERS

I. RELIGIOUS AND THEOLOGICAL

1. Concept of the Universe or Cosmos—Cosmology.
  - (a) How made? (b) How run? (c) Its purpose? (d) The relation of the Earth to the Cosmos? (e) The relation of man to the Cosmos?
2. Concept of God.
  - (a) As Creator? (b) As absolute and arbitrary sovereign? (c) As universal Father of mankind? (d) As catastrophic Doer? (e) As orderly Doer?
3. Concept of Christianity.
  - (a) As only true religion? (b) As superior to all other religions? (c) As destined to eventual triumph over all other religions?
4. Concept of Jesus Christ.
  - (a) As Divine Evangel? (b) As ethical human philosopher? (c) As Lord? (d) As military leader? (e) In respect to his second coming?
5. Concept of the Trinity.
  - (a) Biblical basis? (b) Recognition of the difficulties in it? (c) Abandonment of it by rising Unitarians.
6. Concept of the Authority of the Bible.
  - (a) Its sacredness? (b) Its inspiration? (c) Its inerrancy? (d) Its binding authority? (e) Its all sufficiency?
7. Attitude toward Biblical Interpretation.
  - (a) By the Pope? (b) By Canon Law? (c) By a priesthood? (d) By synods? (e) By congregations? (f) By scholars? (g) By individuals? (h) By canons of reason and common sense?
8. Concept of Divine Revelation.
  - (a) Through the Bible? (b) Through spiritual revelation? (c) Through miraculous intervention? (d) Through the outcome of affairs? (e) Through increased perception and knowledge on the part of man? (f) By Science? (g) By signatures?
9. Concept of Immortality.
  - (a) On Biblical basis? (b) On basis of philosophy and speculation? (c) On the relation of this life to it? (d) Doubt and denial of immortality?
10. Belief in a Personal Devil.
  - (a) On Biblical basis? (b) On basis of philosophical speculation? (c) As pursuing general courses? (d) As doing specific acts? (e) Concept of many demons? (f) Denial of his existence?
11. Belief in Heaven.
  - (a) Origin and basis of the belief? (b) Concept of the location of Heaven? (c) Concept of the way of existence in Heaven? (d) Concept of the spiritual joys of Heaven?
12. Belief in Hell.
  - (a) Origin and basis of the belief? (b) Concept of the location of Hell? (c) Concept of the features of Hell? (d) Opinion of the reasons for eternal punishment in Hell? (e) Opinion as to the route thither? (f) Opinion as to means of avoiding Hell?
13. Belief in Miracles.
  - (a) As to general matters? (b) As to specific events? (c) As related to natural forces?
14. Belief in Angels.
  - (a) On Biblical basis? (b) On basis of contemporary visitation?
15. Belief in Witchcraft.
  - (a) On Biblical basis? (b) On basis of observation? (c) Skepticism concerning?
16. Belief in Predestination.
  - (a) On Biblical basis? (b) On authority of theologians? (c) In relation to free-will? (d) In relation to the Fatherhood of God?
17. Belief in the Necessity of Correct Belief or Correct Faith.
  - (a) Definition and determination of correct belief? (b) The concept of the criminality of incorrect belief? (c) As to hostility to and punishment of incorrect belief? (d) Rejection of the dogma?
18. Concept of Worship.
  - (a) As ceremonial? (b) As mystical? (c) As emotional? (d) As intellectual?
19. Concept of Morals and Morality.
  - (a) As based on Bible? (b) As dependent upon religion? (c) As founded in Christianity? (d) As based on nature? (e) As founded on reason? (f) As the necessary foundation of religion? (g) As related to society? (h) As related to the state and to government?
20. Concept of the Worth of Man and the Significance of Earthly Life.
  - (a) The concept of the depravity of man? (b) appreciation of the dignity of man? (c) Estimation of earthly life?
21. Concept of the Purpose of Life—Philosophy of Life.
  - (a) Probationism? (b) Activism? (c) Hedonism? (d) Quietism? (e) Irrationalism?
22. Concept of the Church.
  - (a) As invisible? (b) As visible? (c) As both invisible and visible? (d) As a historical development? (e) As a fellowship of like-minded?
23. Concept of Church Organization.
  - (a) Papal? (b) Episcopal? (c) Synodical. (d) Congregational?
24. Concept of Local Autonomy.
  - (a) As illustrated in church congregationalism? (b) As illustrated in provincial states-rights? (c) As illustrated in community autonomy?
25. Attitude toward Ministers.
  - (a) As holding a sacred status? (b) As possessing authority? (c) As leaders?
26. Concept of Relation of Church and State.
  - (a) Control of Church by State? (b) Domination of State by Church? (c) Coalescence of Church and State? (d) Separation of Church and State?
27. Concept of Reason.
  - (a) Its nature and characteristics? (b) Its significance and rôle.
28. Attitude toward Mysticism and Emotionalism.
  - (a) As based on Bible? (b) As related to systematic theology? (c) As related to individualistic democracy?
29. Concept of Reality.
  - (a) As related to revelation? (b) As related to science?
30. Concept of Causality.
  - (a) As based on earlier writings, Biblical and otherwise? (b) As based on reason and common sense? (c) As based on experimental science?
31. Attitude toward the Sabbath.
  - (a) Influence of Old Testament? (b) Influence of Anglicanism? (c) Influence of Presbyterianism? (d) Critical attitude toward?
32. Attitude toward the Papacy and Roman Catholicism.
  - (a) As a general emotional prejudice? (b) As based on specific matters?
33. Attitude toward Sacramentalism, Symbolism, and Ritualism.
  - (a) As based on Biblical statement and precedent? (b) As based on mystical worship? (c) As based on emotion? (d) As related to individualistic democracy?
34. Attitude toward Toleration and Religious Freedom.
  - (a) As related to the Bible? (b) As related to Protestantism? (c) As related to the Law of Nature? (d) As related to democracy? (e) As related to the matter of concord and peace?
35. Attitude toward Critical or Free Thought.
  - (a) As related to hostility to Atheism, Skepticism, etc.? (b) As related to Science.
36. Concept of Fate.
  - (a) As related to Providence? (b) As related to the influence of concrete influences?
37. Concept of Death.
  - (a) As a physical phenomenon? (b) As related to religion and immortality?

38. Concept of the Mind.  
(a) As related to philosophic dualism? (b) As a part of heredity? (c) As a matter of individual development?
39. Concept of the Soul.  
(a) As related to philosophic dualism? (b) As related to the mind? (c) As related to religion and theology?
40. Concept of Prayer.  
(a) As subjective? (b) As directed toward objective reality?
41. Concept of Conversion.  
(a) As related to Biblical statement? (b) As related to testimonial experience? (c) As related to observed objective change?
42. Concept of Collective Responsibility.  
(a) As based on Old Testament teaching? (b) As related to social unity?
43. Concept of Sin.  
(a) As based on the Bible? (b) As social damage?
44. Attitude toward Sinners and Unbelievers.  
(a) As possible salvage? (b) As bad citizens?
45. Concept of Penance.  
(a) As derived from Roman Catholicism? (b) As based on Bible?
46. Appreciation of the rôle of psychology.

## II. POLITICAL

1. Concept of the Social Bond.  
(a) As natural? (b) As historical? (c) As a compact? (d) As mechanical?
2. Concept of the State.  
(a) As to origins? (b) As to sovereignty? (c) As to purposes?
3. Concept of the Basis of Political Authority.  
(a) As divine? (b) As inherited and traditional? (c) As popular?
4. Concept of the Relation of the State to the Individual.  
(a) Individual as subject? (b) State as servant?
5. Attitude toward Individualism.  
(a) As a mere member of society? (b) As an entity with rights?
6. Concept of the Purposes of Government.  
(a) In the interests of rulers? (b) For the maintenance of law and order? (c) For the protection of liberties? (d) For the promotion of public welfare?
7. Attitude toward Monarchy.  
(a) As divine? (b) As an object of affectionate regard? (c) As beneficial in results? (d) As irrational? (e) As inadvisable?
8. Attitude toward Aristocracy.  
(a) As divine? (b) As traditional? (c) As advisable? (d) As irrational?
9. Attitude toward Democracy.  
(a) As based on precedent? (b) As rational? (c) As difficult of establishment? (d) As dangerous?
10. The Compact or Contract Theory.  
(a) The social compact? (b) The political compact.
11. Concept of the Law.  
(a) As to its origin? (b) As to its sovereignty?
12. Concept of the State of Nature.  
(a) As chaotic and warlike? (b) As state of full liberty?
13. Concept of the Law of Nature.  
(a) As to its origin and basis? (b) As to its contents?
14. Concept of Natural Rights.  
(a) As to their basis? (b) As to their contents? (c) As to their authority?
15. Concept of Fundamental Laws.  
(a) In relation to law of nature? (b) As to their contents? (c) As to their establishment in a political constitution?
16. Belief in Popular Sovereignty.  
(a) As based on Bible? (b) As based on Law of Nature? (c) As based on historical precedent? (d) As based on logic, reason and common sense?
17. Attitude towards Majority Rule.  
(a) As to its dangers? (b) As to its inevitability? (c) Hostility to it? (d) Approval of it?
18. Attitude on the Right of Resistance and Revolution.  
(a) As based on Biblical authority? (b) As based on the Law of Nature? (c) As based on historical precedent? (d) As related to tyranny? (e) As related to personal liberty?
19. Concept of Personal Liberty.  
(a) As related to the Law of Nature? (b) As related to the "Rights of Englishmen"? (c) As related to government and law? (d) As regards religious matters? (e) In matters of civic and political life?
20. Concept of the "Rights of Englishmen."  
(a) As to its basis? (b) As to its contents?
21. Attitude toward Independence and Nationality.  
(a) Concept of the unity of colonial interest? (b) Concept of the development of a new society? (c) Concept of variation and divorce from England?
22. Concept of the Relation of Government to Business.  
(a) In the matter of the promotion of business by government? (b) In the matter of regulation of business? (c) In the matter of the influence of business on control of government? (d) In *laissez-faire*?
23. Concept of the Supremacy of the Law.  
(a) As regards the subjection of the individual to it? (b) As regards the control of legal change by the people? (c) As regards the adaptation of law to the needs of society?
24. Attitude toward the Common Law.  
(a) As regards its tacit acceptance? (b) As regards its partial denial? (c) As regards its official recognition? (d) In relation to the "Rights of Englishmen"?
25. Attitude toward Statute Law.  
(a) As related to the matter of traditional authority? (b) As related to the matter of the power of legislatures? (c) As related to political democracy?
26. Attitude toward the Executive in Government.  
(a) As influenced by the Bible? (b) As influenced by monarchical precedent? (c) As influenced by ideas of personal rights? (d) As related to the struggle with the mother country?
27. Attitude toward Legislative Power.  
(a) As influenced by English precedent? (b) As influenced by the concept of Natural Rights? (c) As influenced by local interests?
28. Attitude toward the Judiciary and the Courts?  
(a) Conceived of as the government's courts? (b) Conceived of as the law's courts? (c) Conceived of as the people's courts?
29. Attitude toward Suffrage.  
(a) As influenced by precedent? (b) As influenced by property considerations? (c) As influenced by religious considerations? (d) As influenced by residence considerations? (e) As influenced by race considerations? (f) As influenced by sex consideration? (g) As influenced by social status?
30. Concept of Initiative and Referendum.  
(a) In its relation to democratic government? (b) In relation to supposed results?
31. Idea of Separation of Powers, of Checks and Balances.  
(a) As related to English precedent? (b) As related to colonial practice? (c) As related to the writings of philosophers? (d) As related to democracy?
32. Concept of Written Constitutions.  
(a) As based on religious covenant practice? (b) As based on concept of fundamental laws?

33. Concept of Representation.
  - (a) As based on English precedent? (b) As based on colonial practice? (c) As based on Natural Rights?
34. Attitude toward Taxation.
  - (a) In relation to English precedent, especially the "Rights of Englishmen"? (b) As related to economic theory? (c) As related to population and representation? (d) As related to local interests?
35. Attitude toward Freedom of Speech, Freedom of Press, and Freedom of Assembly.
  - (a) In relation to English precedent, especially the "Rights of Englishmen"? (b) In relation to Natural Rights?
36. Attitude toward Equality.
  - (a) In relation to Natural Rights? (b) In relation to personal liberty? (c) In relation to democracy?
37. Attitude toward Wealth.
  - (a) In relation to aristocracy? (b) In relation to democracy? (c) In relation to work and skill?
38. Concept of the Authority of the British Parliament.
  - (a) As influenced by historical tradition and precedent? (b) As related to new developments in British government? (c) As related to political theory in writings of philosophers? (d) As related to colonial charters and development?
39. Attitude toward Foreign Nations and Foreigners.
  - (a) On the basis of group psychology? (b) On the basis of tradition? (c) On the basis of specific interests?
40. Concept of the Relation between States.
  - (a) As based on law? (b) As based on Law of Nature? (c) As based on policy?
41. Attitude toward Imperialism, as exemplified by British Empire.
  - (a) As influenced by group psychology? (b) As based on historical precedent? (c) As related to political theory of philosophers?
42. Belief in Republicanism.
  - (a) As based on historical precedent? (b) As related to writings in political philosophy? (c) As based on charters and colonial practice?
43. Concept of Colonial Unity or Confederation.
  - (a) As related to British imperial action? (b) As related to colonial needs and action?
44. Concept of Colonial Expansion.
  - (a) As regards individual settlements or colonies? (b) As regards the American colonies as a whole?
45. Attitude toward Rotation in Office.
  - (a) As related to democracy? (b) As related to efficiency?
46. Concept of Self-Government of a Colony.
  - (a) As related to the Charters and colonial practice? (b) As related to the Law of Nature, Rights of Man, etc.?
47. Attitude toward Lawyers and Legal Technicalities.
  - (a) As related to the necessity of legal scholarship? (b) As related to chicanery and the defeat of justice?
48. Attitude toward Immigration.
  - (a) As related to economic benefits? (b) As related to racial and religious homogeneity?
49. Attitude toward Law Enforcement, especially as regards Smuggling.
  - (a) As related to the concept of the Law? (b) As related to public opinion? (c) As related to local interests?
50. Attitude toward the Jury System.
  - (a) As based on precedent? (b) As based on democracy?
51. Concept of Implied Powers in Government.
  - (a) As influenced by British precedent? (b) As based on political theories of philosophers? (c) As based on colonial practice?
52. Concept of Nullification and Secession.
  - (a) As related to Law of Nature? (b) As related to democracy? (c) As related to sectional and local interests?

### III. SOCIAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL

1. Concept of the Family.
  - (a) As related to sex attraction? (b) As related to the continuity of the race? (c) As an economic institution? (d) As a social institution? (e) As based on religious sanction? (f) As a civil institution? (g) As related to external control? (h) Tendencies of the bond of family affection? (i) Appreciation of the importance of the family?
2. Concept of Marriage.
  - (a) As religious and sacred? (b) As civil? (c) As social? (d) As biological? (e) As romantic? (f) As to its permanence or impermanence?
3. Concept of Family Organization and Internal Control.
  - (a) Domination by the male? (b) Equality of husband and wife? (c) Control of children? (d) Control of servants?
4. Attitude toward Women.
  - (a) As inferior? (b) As domestic? (c) As helpmate? (d) As regards unmarried adult women? (e) As regards civic rights?
5. Attitude toward the Child.
  - (a) In the matter of discipline? (b) In the matter of training? (c) In the matter of work? (d) In the matter of schooling?
6. Attitude toward White Servitude and White Servants.
  - (a) Justifications of the institution of white servitude? (b) Evidences of hostility to the institution? (c) Evidences of consideration for the rights of white servants as individuals?
7. Attitude toward Negro Slavery and Slaves.
  - (a) Justifications of the institution of negro slavery? (b) Evidences of hostility to the institution? (c) Evidences of consideration for the rights of negro slaves as individuals?
8. Attitude toward the Slave Trade.
  - (a) Sanction of its economic profits? (b) Attempted justifications of its results on the Africans? (c) Evidences of realization of its barriers?
9. Attitude toward the Indians.
  - (a) Conceived of as savages? (b) Conceived of as holders of title to the land? (c) Conceived of as objects of missionary enterprise? (d) In the matter of political relations? (e) In the matter of treatment in trade?
10. Attitude toward Punishments—Penology.
  - (a) As related to Biblical injunction or precedent? (b) As related to English law and precedent? (c) Evidences of penal reform ideas?
11. Attitude toward Education.
  - (a) As regards purposes? (b) As regards benefits observed? (c) As regards control? (d) As a public matter? (e) As a private matter? (f) As regards the character of it?
12. Humanitarianism and Philanthropy.
  - (a) As regards the poor? (b) As regards the insane? (c) As regards the sick? (d) As regards orphans?
13. Attitude toward Drink and Drunkenness.
  - (a) As based on custom? (b) As evil in its results?
14. Attitude toward Debt and Debtors.
  - (a) In the matter of responsibility of debtors? (b) Evidences of recognition of the rôle of misfortune? (c) Criticisms of the wisdom of imprisonment for debt?
15. Attitude toward Warfare.
  - (a) In relation to Biblical precept and example? (b) Assumption of the unavailability of war? (c) Justification of defensive war? (d) Recognition of the iniquity of warfare? (e) Evidences of desire to avoid or postpone military conflict. (f) Expressions of desire to remove the causes of warfare? (g) Efforts to establish a peace system?
16. Attitude toward Leisure.
  - (a) In the matter of its morality? (b) In the matter of use and observed results?

17. Attitude toward Pleasure, Sport, Games, etc.  
(a) As related to the philosophy of hedonism? (b) As related to religion? (c) As related to sociability?

## IV. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

1. Mercantilist Concepts.  
(a) As regards the accumulation of precious metals? (b) As regards protection from foreign competition? (c) As regards a favorable balance of trade? (d) As regards the promotion of shipping?
2. Concept of Economic Self-Sufficiency (Colonial).  
(a) Of colonies as a whole? (b) Of any one settlement?
3. Attitude toward Commercial Monopolies.  
(a) On the basis of English law and experience? (b) On the basis of local needs and rights?
4. Concept of Interest.  
(a) As usury? (b) As dependent upon supply and demand? (c) As just return?
5. Attitude toward Private Property.  
(a) As absolute? (b) As in the interests of society? (c) As a natural right? (d) In the matter of collectionist thought? (e) In the matter of communistic thought?
6. Attitude toward Land Ownership and Land Monopolization.  
(a) As related to feudalism? (b) As related to democracy? (c) As related to expansion? (d) As related to social or unearned increment?
7. Concept of the Ethics of Business and Trade.  
(a) As related to legal rights? (b) As related to the golden rule?
8. Concept of the Incidence of Taxation.  
(a) In relation to landed property? (b) In relation to personal property? (c) In the matter of poll taxes? (d) In relation to incomes or profits? (e) By excises? (f) By customs on imports? (g) By inheritance taxes? (h) As related to institutional exemption?
9. Attitude toward Smuggling and Piracy.  
(a) In the matter of the evasion of law? (b) In the matter of the use of the proceeds?
10. Attitude toward Wages and Prices.  
(a) As regards fair wages and fair prices? (b) As regards the law of supply and demand? (c) In the matter of governmental regulation?
11. Concept of the Role of Currency.  
(a) In its relation to the volume of exchange? (b) As regards paper money?
12. Attitude toward Inheritance.  
(a) As related to primogeniture? (b) As related to equal division? (c) As related to widow's rights? (d) As related to widower's rights? (e) As related to the right of the state to a share? (f) As related to philanthropic foundations.
13. Concept of the Importance of Agricultural Life.  
(a) As related to economic health? (b) As related to political stability?

## V. CULTURAL OR AESTHETIC

1. Attitude toward Nature.  
(a) As related to animal life? (b) As related to plant life, especially flowers? (c) As related to scenery? (d) As related to weather? (e) As related to natural wonders, terrestrial and celestial?
2. Attitude toward Learning and Scholarship.  
(a) As related to status of scholars? (b) As related to the love of books? (c) Evidences of approval? (d) Evidences of hostility?
3. Attitude toward Reason.  
(a) Conceptions of its definition? (b) Ideas as to its origin and basis? (c) Estimates of its validity? (d) Concepts of its rôle or sway?
4. Attitude toward Science.  
(a) Evidences of a technique of observation? (b) Approval of experimentation? (c) As regards the relation of science and truth? (d) As regards the relation of science and theology?

5. Attitude toward Art and Beauty?  
(a) Concepts of? (b) Evidences of appreciation? (c) Evidences of hostility to art?
6. Attitude toward Music.  
(a) As regards professional music? (b) As regards church music? (c) As regards popular or folk music and song?
7. Attitude toward Poetry and Literature.  
(a) Evidences of love of poetry? (b) Evidences of respect for literature as such?
8. Appreciation of Wit and Humor.  
(a) As influenced by religion?

This list of items once established and distributed in mimeograph form to the students, served as a guide in the selection of excerpts to be taken from the writings of American colonials. Since a student could hardly be expected in one semester to examine the writings of more than one man, a list of colonial writers was drawn up and individual assignments made. Wherever a student had a choice, an effort was made to arrange the assignment in accordance with the choice. Somewhat arbitrarily the instructor reserved for his own interpretation the writings of William Bradford and several minor characters among the Pilgrims at Plymouth Plantation and the writings of John Winthrop and Edward Johnson of Massachusetts. And somewhat later in the course he made an analysis of the intellectual life of John Davenport of Connecticut.

In the selection of persons whose writings were to be examined, attention was not confined to those included in Parrington's *The Colonial Mind*. And in the first semester, the effort was made to study only the writings falling within the period before 1750. Alphabetically arranged, those whose writings were examined the first semester were: William Bradford, William Byrd II, John Cotton, John Davenport, Jonathan Edwards, John Eliot, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Hooker, Edward Johnson, Cotton Mather, Thomas Morton, William Penn, Edward Randolph, Samuel Sewall, John Smith, Nathaniel Ward, Roger Williams, Edward Winslow, John Winthrop, John Wise and John Woolman. While the students were engaged in the examination of the writings of the individual of their assignment, the instructor went, in lecture notes, carefully through the first two chapters of *The Colonial Mind*, and followed this with his analysis of the writings of the characters reserved for his consideration.

Necessarily much time was spent in all this experimental co-operation. But it was certainly not time wholly wasted. Though it was late before the first student report was ready, the results, as shown in the report, were eminently worth while.

The first report was made by a graduate student, a young lady teaching in the public schools. Her workmanship and ability were unknown to me and I awaited the report with all the interest of expectation based on uncertainty. She reported on the intellectual life of Edward Winslow, one of the more prominent characters of Plymouth. After a satisfactory brief treatment of the life of Winslow and a bibliographical statement of his writings, she reported her findings in accordance with the mimeographed list of items. Her approach, therefore,

seemed to be scientifically organized. Not only did she work scientifically, but she possessed a good voice, and in her school work she had evidently mastered the art of making a story interesting and clear. It was the unanimous opinion of the experienced teachers of the class that the report was a gem of both science and art. So highly did I estimate this first report, that for use in another connection, I asked the student to write it up for me. Under the title, "Life, Writings and Attitudes of Edward Winslow," it lies on my desk. If it is possible to draw up within fifty pages of long-hand writing a more satisfactory revelation of the intellectual life of Edward Winslow, it is hard to imagine how it can be done. And it would take a Vernon Louis Parrington, a Gamaliel Bradford, an Irving Babbitt, or a Salvador de Madariaga to do it.

Comment at length upon all the reports is impossible, but some of them call for mention. John Eliot proved so fascinating a subject of study that a veritable compendium seemed necessary to one student who reported on him. Cotton Mather was revealed as a man whose writings can be read with profit for the intellectual light they throw on the age. William Penn, on the examination of much of his writings, stood revealed as the most cosmopolitan and enlightened figure in American history in the seventeenth century. Edward Randolph, a prominent *bête noire* of New England history, did not seem from his own literary remains to be half so benighted as the reputation he bears. John Smith, the swash-buckler and man of action of traditional lore, showed up, in a report based on his writings, as a man of thought and culture as well—a matter which good judgment might have properly assumed without proof. The reaction of students to the writings of Nathaniel Ward varied greatly. One of them seemed to appreciate the contrast between his serious thought and his satirical thought on lighter matters. Another was so antagonized by his intolerance and illiberality that he could see little good in him. Of all the men studied, John Woolman seems to have produced the most pleasing impression. The three students who in three different classes read his works and reported on his intellectual life and outlook were unanimous in their praise and their assertion of his intellectual and literary fascination.

Reports of such a character made by students often surprise an instructor. Some of the best reports are made by those just beginning advanced historical study. The novelty of it seems to inspire them and they grasp the program and carry it through with well organized efficiency. On the other hand, older graduate students sometimes seem unable to get away from a chronological narrative and an encyclopædic style. In particular it seemed difficult for some of them to take the narrative and expository writings of a man like William Byrd II and deduce from them the subjective ideas and attitudes of the man. It seemed difficult for them to detect the man back of his recorded statements. Probably it is too much to expect that every student

has the critical judgment necessary for such work.

Owing to the lateness with which assignments were made in the first semester and work begun on them, not all the reports could be heard before its end, and a number of them were carried over into the time of the second semester. This again delayed actual entry upon the new work of the second semester. But an attempt was made to offset this by early assignments, which, in accordance with the program, were confined largely to historic figures of the last half of the eighteenth century. An open purpose of the semester's work was to find items in the intellectual background of the American Revolution.

In the second semester, somewhat to the disappointment of some members of the groups who had themselves decided upon the individuals, the instructor reserved for his own consideration studies of the intellectual life of Samuel Adams and Thomas Jefferson, no small reservation from the standpoint of material to be handled. Alphabetically arranged those whose writings were examined for light on their ideas, opinions, beliefs and attitudes were: John Adams, Samuel Adams, Jonathan Boucher, Hugh Henry Brackenridge, Charles Carroll, John Dickinson, William Findley, Benjamin Franklin, Philip Freneau, Thomas Gage, Alexander Hamilton, Patrick Henry, F. Hopkinson, Jr., John Jay, Samuel Johnson, Arthur Lee, Richard Henry Lee, James Madison, George Mason, James Otis, Thomas Paine, John Trumbull, George Washington and James Wilson. These were selections made from a much larger list which was given consideration. Some of them were chosen for local and personal reasons. It can hardly be defended as representative. Since the instructor's notes on the writings of Samuel Adams and Thomas Jefferson were not as complete as desired, some time in the semester was taken up with fag end materials from the first semester. And at the end of all the reports carried over from the first semester, some time was given to a thorough analysis of the ideas in Walter Lippmann's *A Preface to Morals*,<sup>12</sup> with the view of noting the contrast between seventeenth and twentieth century thought. Seemingly a bad digression, this proved a most stimulating and beneficial addition to the course. This analysis was followed by reports on the intellectual life of Samuel Adams and Thomas Jefferson.

Comment on the reports made by students must be restricted. Jonathan Boucher was revealed to have been much more enlightened than Professor Parrington pictures him to have been. Benjamin Franklin stood out as the most versatile and cosmopolitan of American colonial thinkers. The report on Philip Freneau in which the mimeographed scheme was used to detect items in his poetry seemed to prove the value of some such method in studying poetry. An instructor in political science read the entire published writings of James Madison and held the attention of the class in a report of two hours' length. Thomas Paine proved most interesting as a thinker to those who reported on him. It was the unanimous opinion of those who reported on James Wilson that

of all Americans he had the greatest insight into the spirit and future of American governmental institutions.

The disadvantage of experimentation in the organization of the work showed up most clearly in the hurry with which reports had to be made at the end of the second semester. In proof of the grip of such work on students, it should be noted that in the night session at the last meeting the entire class of twenty came voluntarily an hour early in order that all the reports might be given and heard.

In the work of the second semester, it quickly became evident that the mimeographed list of items applied to the seventeenth century rather than to the last half of the eighteenth. Some of the items in the list were no longer of value. Important categories of thought located in these later writings were not catalogued in the list, and the problem of inclusion or omission in the report arose. It was, however, in the time remaining, too late to draw up another and different list of items. Students were simply thrown on their own judgment and resources.

It seemed, also, that the reading and reports of the second semester showed a decided improvement in effectiveness of attack on the materials under consideration, or, in other words, in the technique of graduate scholarship and work.

In a later year, in a repetition of the course, it will be possible for the instructor to interpret other men. Roger Williams will most certainly be one of these. William Penn may be another. And of the revolutionary fathers, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Paine will be reserved for consideration by the instructor.

The whole question of the genesis, background, and evolution of American colonial thought proved from such an investigation to be worthy of the greatest effort to master it. Professor Parrington's volume indicates the gold which may be mined from the

mountain of existing literary remains. And the ramifications of such study inevitably carry one off into every aspect of American colonial history. An investigation which the instructor has in mind is that of the collegiate and post-collegiate education abroad of men who came to the colonies or went from the colonies to Europe for their education abroad, and the influences thereby transmitted to America. It is evident that many general ideas came from Europe. How far did particular ideas come from European schools? An answer to this question may explain much in American colonial history.

<sup>1</sup> An epitome of the results of Professor Jernegan's studies in this field will be found in his book, *The American Colonies, 1492-1750, A Study of Political, Economic and Social Development*, Epochs of American History Series, Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1929.

<sup>2</sup> This book, the first of three volumes in a series entitled, *Main Currents in American Thought, An Interpretation of American Literature from the Beginnings to 1920*, was published by Harcourt, Brace and Company, of New York. The second volume by the same author and publisher appeared in the same year. The death of Professor Parrington in 1929 while in Europe at work on the third volume, *The Beginnings of Critical Realism in America, 1860-1920*, was a distinct loss to American scholarship.

<sup>3</sup> Published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1926, with the sub-title, *A Survey of the Intellectual Background of the Present Age*.

<sup>4</sup> Published by Ginn and Company, Boston, 1913. It is a book of no small value to the layman.

<sup>5</sup> Published by the Macmillan Company, New York, 1921.

<sup>6</sup> Published by the Macmillan Company, New York, 1914. This is the most satisfactory brief compilation of the readings necessary in such a course.

<sup>7</sup> Published by the Cambridge University Press, 1898.

<sup>8</sup> Published by Henry Holt, New York, 1913, with the additional title, *From Puritanism to Pragmatism*.

<sup>9</sup> Published by the G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1917.

<sup>10</sup> Published by Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1929.

<sup>11</sup> Published by Stokes, New York, 1929.

<sup>12</sup> A remarkable work published by the Macmillan Company, New York, in 1929.

## The Young Kaiser

BY PROFESSOR C. RAYMOND BEAZLEY, EDGBASTON, BIRMINGHAM, ENG.

"General tendencies do not alone decide...personalities are always necessary to make them effective." The last written, that is dictated, words of the chief of modern historians may apply to disaster as well as to success. "Miran Mirza can do little himself—but he can cause the greatest works of former days to be destroyed." Such tragedies are forever being repeated.

Who of us can forget (who lived in those days) the position of the New Germany in the spring of 1890? Who can help recalling the contrast presented at the end of 1918? On one side, the hegemony of the Continent of Europe—the first place among military powers (and "he who has the army, has the sovereignty")—an upspringing life in commerce and industry, in science and expansion, to which all things seemed possible. And on the other side, "yield thee the prisoner, rescue or no rescue, or thou art but a dead man." All lost, save honor.

If even at the moment, the fall of Bismarck was felt to mark a mighty change, surely few but extreme pessimists gauged the depth of that change.

In reality Germany and Europe were now crossing a watershed. After this the ground was increasingly rough and dangerous for travelers. And again after a while the land more and more clearly sloped down towards an abyss.

"The removal" of the Prince from the helm of continental politics was truly of such importance—as the London *Times* confessed—that none who realized his services to Peace could avoid a feeling almost of dread, as to the future.<sup>1</sup>

There was much pretence of everything as before. In reality things were changed at the very roots.

During the years of Bismarck's dictatorship, it has been well said and often said,<sup>2</sup> the policy of the New Germany changed at the very roots.

"Bismarck knew that life had made him a mas-

ter." Yet now the mastery had been torn from him by men whom he deemed<sup>2</sup>—whom William I would have deemed, of whom history surely will deem—mere novices and apprentices compared with the master-builder. And year by year, as he reached and passed his eightieth birthday, he saw them spoiling his work. In the bitterness of his heart he cried out, "I see no future—no hope."

But after Bismarck there was never again the same unity of control, and in the first years of the *New Course*, the *Caprivi Era*, it represented a constantly shifting compromise between the ideas and wishes of the young Emperor, Chancellor Caprivi, Marschall von Bieberstein, the Foreign Secretary, and a remarkable mystery-man in the Berlin Foreign Office, Baron Friedrich von Holstein.

William II, who now, in his thirty-second year, and in the plenitude of self-confidence, took over the personal rule of the Empire, proved the last Ruler of his House, the last Sovereign of his country, and the central figure of a national catastrophe.

His father, the famous Crown Prince and Emperor Frederick—"Frederick the Noble"—in the last years of his life developed a deep distrust of his heir and expressed it very frankly. Thus in a famous letter to Bismarck of September the 28th, 1886. Considering his "unripeness and inexperience," his leaning towards "vanity and presumption," his overweening estimate of himself, it was dangerous, thought the Crown Prince, to bring him in touch with foreign affairs.<sup>4</sup> "I count upon your support in this matter, which deeply concerns me." The forecast proved one of fatal truth.

In his reckless cleverness, his unwise haste (at moments that called for cool reflection) his strange delays (at other times when speedy decision was needed)—as in his ever-shifting but ever violent purposes—there appeared, with perplexing uncertainty, something of the unbalanced and unpractical brilliance of his great-uncle. Both were gifted but ill-judging—both exclamatory, excitable, ardent, eloquent, lacking in perception, perseverance, balance. Yet the artistic, literary, or spiritual enthusiasms of Frederick William IV, the bosom friend of Alexander Humboldt and of Bunsen, perhaps more devoid of military ideas and ideals than any other Prussian King, were far removed from the spirit of the War-Lord, burning with enthusiasm for army and fleet. The latter's conception of the Ruler is that of the strong man armed keeping his house, living in peace and prosperity because his power defies danger. His atmosphere is one in which dominating conceptions of physical force and material power are strangely mingled with mystical idealisms. "Ivre d'un rêve héroïque et bruyant." Brute strength and mysticism here unite, as Nitti remarks. In any event, the ex-Emperor often lives and moves in a world permeated with unreality. A true and penetrating judgment is denied him—in many crises. He is profoundly, terribly, constantly mistaken in his estimate of the position. As ship's captain, he angrily drops the old pilot. He can no

longer endure an *inherited mentor* (was it to be a Bismarck Dynasty or a Hohenzollern Dynasty that reigned, whispered the mischief-makers). He thinks he can do very well without Bismarck. And he allows the Bismarckian system to be most seriously injured. He will guide things himself now, as skilfully, as successfully as ever. Caprivi need not fear. The Emperor will look after him, and see that he does not err. "I am behind you." It is somewhat like Louis XIV and Louvois—"I formed your father and I will form you."

The motto is to be as before—*Full steam ahead*. Herbert Bismarck in vain reminds the Kaiser that a great system of political friendships—a vast coherent intelligent Unity—cannot be violently dislocated without the whole structure suffering.<sup>5</sup>

The secret understanding with Russia is dropped. The young Sovereign, who had had such a hot fit of Russian friendship for some years, to whom Alexander III had been the most adorable of Emperors, is now in a cold fit of alienation and offence. The best Russian statesmanship—Nicolas Karlovich de Giers—clings hard to the receding Prussian friendship. All in vain. The Tsardom, now indeed isolated, slowly, reluctantly, increasingly turns to a French alliance. Thus a new and obstinate factor, of great peril, is introduced into the *Haute Politique* of Europe.

So much for the first months of personal rule. And within the next six years an Anglo-German antagonism had been also created which was a new thing in its intensity, and as sinister as it was new. And to all this a needless quarrel with Japan had been added.

These things were typical. Now, as later, the Kaiser shows abounding political interest and strong political bias, but less wisdom. Perhaps he did not always adequately study the material essential for judgment. (This is one of the Bismarckian accusations.) Few statesmen have been more violently and dangerously swayed by the sympathies or antipathies of the moment.

Yet he was gifted with a remarkable quickness of apprehension, in some fields;—he was full of enthusiasm for work that attracted him;—he had, with all his theatricality, a keen sense of duty;—he was an ardent patriot. He gave direct and notable encouragement to the growth of German trade, industry, invention, and enterprise. Especially he fostered maritime developments, though sometimes with dangerous challenging combativeness. It was his especial mission, he thought, to develop German energies at sea. "Our future lies on the water." He makes Herwegh's celebrated line doubly his own.

And, up to a certain point, why not? Is there not obvious and necessary truth in this idea? And how had the situation developed since Herwegh wrote? Now the new German Empire—by the end of the Bismarck age—had added to its military and political hegemony in Europe a great commercial standing. Its merchants were winning, opening, or penetrating to new markets all over the world. Why

should it not have colonies of its own? Or an ever vaster trade of its own? Why should not the young Emperor stress these possibilities? So far, so good. The difficult and delicate matters came in after this. How much farther? And here was needed the skill and caution, the intuition and breadth of a Bismarck, or at least of a Hardenberg.

And in the field of policy, in the maintenance of friendships, in the development of alliances, in the avoidance of enmities, in the disarming of antipathies, the Kaiser's failure was colossal. With perilous frequency he inspired uncertainty, distrust, suspicion. "Il n'était de relation sure"—thought many.<sup>6</sup> As had been said of his predecessor Henry IV—the Henry of Canossa—whom in some ways he curiously resembles—"he grew to manhood passionate but weak."

How far, it has been often asked, did William II really govern Germany? How far, especially, did he really direct German foreign policy? Under all this appearance of personal rule, what is the reality?

Certainly he took an active share in things. Habitually he read much of the correspondence on foreign policy and international affairs. Habitually he added characteristic notes, the expression sometimes (as has been said) of a passing mood, sometimes of a definite political purpose, but in any case usually the reflection of a curious vehemence of temper and haste of judgment, a classic example of the danger of extremes. Frequently, moreover, he had independent and momentous interviews with envoys and other foreign visitors, the substance of which he normally communicated to the Chancellor, and often to other ministers and officials. On his travels he was almost always accompanied by a diplomatist in close touch with the *Auswärtige Amt*. Sometimes he made or attempted useful strokes of policy, valuable suggestions for policy, on his own initiative. Sometimes in crises he started with a sounder view than that to which he was unfortunately over-persuaded.

Yet all this, like the dismissal of Bismarck, gives a deceptive impression of a dominating autocrat, successfully imposing his will on all. Instead of this we see a man who to a surprising degree could be brought to modify or abandon his own views, and even to act counter to them, though they had been expressed with the utmost vehemence and definiteness.

We find the Emperor often managed, guided, kept in the dark, by his statesmen. Even in important questions he was not always well informed. Especially did Buelow sometimes (as in 1905) conceal most vital matters from him, and confront him with the *fait accompli*. Very systematically does Bismarck's chief successor endeavor to bring the sovereign into a certain dependence on his chief adviser.

Thus the Emperor's character and personality were much weaker and less forceful than might be guessed from his strong words and imposing display (his "very photograph a declaration of war," to many besides the witty Gallifet). He was never perhaps able entirely to conquer his secret consciousness of weakness, immaturity, and instability.

His early essays at intervention in world-politics were premature and too noisy, remarks the strongest of his ministers of the New Course. He seemed unable to remain steadily in the world of realities.<sup>7</sup>

In so many fields, repeats the Minister (whose own department—of the Navy—formed the chief exception here) the Kaiser was lacking in clear and sustained purpose. In his relations with Britain, with France, with Russia, with the Balkan States, even with America, we find an eternal wavering between divergent extremes, a disastrous hesitancy and changefulness. As Leipziger said to Tirpitz in the winter of 1894-5, if only we know which way they really want to go.<sup>8</sup> Do we not recall the protests of the Crown Prince on the eve of the Great War?

Even at the beginning, in the spring of 1890, we find another of the closest intimates and prime favorites of William II, Alfred von Waldersee, Moltke's successor as Chief of the General Staff, making similar lamentations. He was supremely concerned to observe that the young Kaiser, with all his gifts and good qualities, was so wanting in fixed opinions—in firm convictions and steady policy. He seemed at times not really to know what he wanted. "How often have I seen him waver between Austria and Russia. How many divergent ideas have I heard him express on persons."

A man might be an excellent fellow today, and count for nothing tomorrow. Thus many men, groups, and parties, like the Colonial enthusiasts in the very first year of his "personal rule," were made to feel that they had been rather thrown over. It was all a curious contrast to the old Kaiser William—one of those figures, princely alike in soul and body, whose qualities explained the life and death devotion of servants and adherents. If you stuck to him, writes his great partner, the Iron Chancellor, you might indeed be sure that at no time would he ever leave you in the lurch.

Definite projects might be put before the new and volatile sovereign, and win approval and commendation, only to lose favor again very quickly. Clever men, who knew how to indulge him, had no difficulty in getting him to change his views and make *astounding leaps in all directions*.

With a similar anatomy of melancholy, Waldersee regrets the assurance of the new Sovereign in things he had not mastered, his somewhat overbearing attitude towards experience. What dilettantism characterized his methods, exclaims the favored but disappointed soldier—what wish for popularity, whatever increasing egotism. "He welcomes ovations with passionate delight. There is nothing he likes better than hurrah-ing multitudes." Even his fascinating gift of friendliness, winning all hearts for the moment, had not (to the Field Marshal's eye) the wearing power of the truest metal. "Everyone who has not learned to know him intimately lies under the charm of his personality." To keep this friendliness the Kaiser *must not tarry too long*—as with Alexander III.

In a word (and it is the judgment of one of these very friends) the new Kaiser was not the man to lead the Fatherland at that critical time.<sup>9</sup> "Decidedly he came too soon to the throne." Waldersee confesses that he himself had had a glimpse of this terrifying ghost years before. But he had put it away. Now it had grown into a conviction.

"Full of good intentions and idealistic aspirations," but not purified by hard and sad experience, the new Emperor had not learnt that the applause of crowds and the language of newspapers had often little basis in reality. Yet the belief that he really stood for something extraordinary was no mere "vanity extraordinary," as the exasperated soldier would have us think. For even if he had no great and defined plans as yet, he stood on a very pinnacle of apparent and indeed of real power and safety. He had taken over the Empire when its prestige stood very high—but not higher than its true strength. The world believed in the firm unity of Germany, in its military superiority, and in the genius of Bismarck. And the world was not very wrong. That world, therefore, might well regard the "general situation" without disquietude. The Kaiser imagined he had only to accept his inheritance and keep things going. So cries the angry Waldersee. Yet in truth if only that inheritance had been maintained carefully enough, unbrokenly enough, no great harm need have befallen. But soon ill-temper led the Emperor to dismiss the chief maker of that inheritance and to alter the course that he had steered. Even the military amateur-statesman, who had once longed for this great crash, came bitterly to regret it. "The world needs a Bismarck," writes Waldersee in 1901. "I pray to God I may not have to live through what I see coming" is the last entry in the journal of that repentant and enlightened amateur in 1904.

Sometimes—and those oftentimes of fatal moment—the Kaiser seems possessed by the very perversities of un wisdom. Was not the heart waxed gross, and the eyes closed, and the ears dull of hearing? And was it lest he should perceive and hear and understand—and turn again—and find deliverance?

He was no monster of crafty wickedness, planning through long years the overthrow of neighbors and rivals, the invasion and conquest of other nations. When he cried in the midst of Armageddon, I did not will this war, he spoke truly. But it was his supreme duty to give good direction to his country's policy. And surely he was not altogether successful. He wrenched the rudder from the hands of the old pilot of supreme capacity, and he proved that he himself could not steer—with the same mastery. And so the vessel of the Empire at last found itself, after eight-and-twenty years of the guidance of William the Second, among the breakers and the rocks [1890-1918].

<sup>1</sup> *Times*, March 19, 1890.

<sup>2</sup> As by G. P. Gooch, *Modern Europe*, 197.

<sup>3</sup> Cf. Robertson, *Bismarck*, 492.

<sup>4</sup> Bismarck, *Gedanken*, Vol. III, p. 2. This language about "mangelnden Reife....Unerfahrenheit....Ueberhebung....Ueberschaetzung" did not prevent this step being taken. Prince William was already twenty-seven; Frederick the Great had ascended the throne at twenty-eight. Bismarck, *Gedanken*, p. 3.

<sup>5</sup> "Unsere auswärtige politik sei ein durchdachtes und sorgsam behandeltes ganzes," Bismarck, *Gedanken*, III, 143.

<sup>6</sup> "Il était de relation sure—eine von den fürstlichen gestalten, in Seele und Körper, deren Eigenschaften....die....Hingebung ihrer Diener....auf Tod und Leben erklären." Bismarck, on William I, *Gedanken*, II, 332-3 (in that famous XXXII chapter which contains one of the most notable and exquisite tributes ever rendered by one public man to another).

<sup>7</sup> Tirpitz, *Memoirs*, I., 59.

<sup>8</sup> Tirpitz, *Memoirs*, I., 58.

<sup>9</sup> Waldersee, *Memoirs*, c. g., April 24, May 6, July 25, August 11, September 24-25, 1890.

## Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

By COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Several sessions of the Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association and affiliated groups, held in Boston, December 29th-31st, were devoted to the teaching of the social studies. A Joint Session of the National Council for the Social Studies and the American Historical Association, College and Teachers' College Sections, at Boston University, December 29th, included the following program: Mark M. Heald, Rutgers University, "Report on Further Investigations of the Orientation Courses"; C. E. Herrick, Marshall College, "Do Our Present Curricula Supply Adequate Training for Teachers of Social Subjects in the Public Schools?"; D. D. McBrien, State Teachers' College, Conway, Ark., "Who is Responsible for the Instruction in Teaching the Social Subjects?" Discussion of the papers was led by A. W. Risley, State College for Teachers, Albany, N. Y.; J. I. Arnold, State Normal School, Bridgewater, Mass.; H. P. Swett, State Normal School, Plymouth, N. H.; D. C. Knowlton, New York University, served as Chairman for the session.

A Luncheon Conference on Social Studies in the Schools was held in the Swiss Room of the Copley Plaza Hotel. A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota, served as Chairman in the absence of Edgar Dawson, President of the National Council for the Social Studies. W. E. Dodd, University of Chicago, delivered an address on "Nationalism: the Besetting Sin of Historians." The discussion leader was A. M. Schlesinger, Harvard University.

A Joint Session of the National Council for the Social Studies and the American Historical Association, which convened during the afternoon of December 29th, at Boston University, included the following program: Truman L. Kelley, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, "Function of New Type Tests in the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools"; Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota, "Summary of Progress of the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools." A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota, presided as Chairman.

A Joint Session of the National Council for the Social

Studies and the New England History Teachers' Association was held at Boston University on December 30th. J. Montgomery Gambrill, Teachers' College, Columbia University, read a paper, "A New Approach to the Modern Problems Course." Horace Kidger, Newton, Mass., High School, led the discussion. M. C. Freeman, High School of Practical Arts, Boston, presided as Chairman. Both groups held their business sessions after the conclusion of the program. The officers of the National Council for the Social Studies are: President, R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago; First Vice-President, DeWitt S. Morgan, Arsenal Technical Schools, Indianapolis; Second Vice-President, W. G. Kimmel; Secretary-Treasurer, Bessie L. Pierce, University of Chicago. Frances Morehouse, Hunter College, and Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University, are the new members of the Executive Committee.

In the January number of *Journal of Home Economics* Maud Wilson Dunn describes "Family Adjustments: A Course for Senior High School Boys," offered as an elective course in Long Beach, California. A preliminary outline of the proposed course was sent to 346 fathers and to their sons; a questionnaire was also submitted to them, and the replies were used in the development of the course. Twenty-seven topics were listed, and the boys were asked to check the topics they knew most about, the topics they preferred to have discussed, and those which might be omitted. More than 200 of the 300 boys who replied wished to consider the following topics, arranged in order of preference:

- "The legal points which safeguard a home.
- Something about the legal procedure connected with home building.
- How to live with others for the mental health of each individual concerned....
- Ideal family relationships involve understanding of the personality of its members and allowing for the development of desirable personality.
- Man must vision the ideals he wishes to realize in family life and consciously bend his efforts toward realizing these ideals.
- The names, cost, and wearing qualities of standard woolen and worsted materials used for men's suits and overcoats.
- Something about table etiquette, office etiquette, and appropriate behavior for other occasions.
- How to budget a family income.
- A host should be able to carve and serve.
- The application of art principles to the planning and furnishing of an office or home.
- Line and color and their combination in men's dress."
- The parents favor such a course. The boys wish a man as instructor; the course is open to boys in the junior and senior classes and is catalogued as a course in sociology. The course includes six units:
  - I. Getting Along with People (2 weeks).
  - II. Development of Family Life (5 weeks).
  - III. Adjustments in Family Finance (5 weeks).
  - IV. Adjustments Due to Age Differences (1 week).
  - V. Adjustments in Cases of Sickness and Accidents (1 week).
  - VI. Twentieth Century Family Adjustments (4 weeks).
- The topics discussed in each unit are described briefly. Results to date justify the continuance of the course.

The November issue of *Social Studies Leaflet* (Southern California Social Science Association: Editor—Hettie A. Withey, Chaffey Union High School, Ontario, California) contains a series of articles of interest to teachers of the social studies. Grace Taylor, in "The Social Studies Laboratory," describes the laboratory, equipment, collections of materials, and pupil activities, in the Saranac Lake, New York, High School. "The History Record," a yearbook of pupils' creative activities, is described. This annual volume was originally planned as a publication to put into permanent form the best of the materials produced by pupils; it is now eagerly purchased by pupils in the school and by the citizens of the community, when a

sufficient number of copies is available for general distribution. Later educational careers of certain pupils who acquired a vocational interest in the work in the social studies laboratory are described.

Henry W. Magnuson, in "Two Units in Modern History," contributes guide sheets for "The Unification of Italy" and "France Seeks Prestige Through a Restored Empire." Each unit includes a brief introductory statement, an outline of minimum essentials in content, references, projects, and additional projects for "honors credit."

Anna Stewart, in "California as a High School Subject," cites reasons for the study of the history and government of California, and mentions some of the difficulties involved in view of the change in the new requirement in Los Angeles which limits the study of American history to one semester. Rexie L. Bennett, in "World Friendship Clubs," describes the growth of these clubs in high schools from the first club developed by Stephen S. Myrick in Hollywood High School to the present State Federation of High School World Friendship Clubs, with affiliated clubs in many high schools. The activities of the clubs are described. Mary Lathrop, in "Social Studies in Grades Five and Six," describes the major features of the work in the Los Angeles schools. The course of study for these grades includes "the old world background of American history, North and South America, continental Europe and Great Britain." Features of the unit organization are described and criteria are set forth.

A committee of the Southern California Social Science Association, in "The Senior High School Requirement," sets forth the situation involved in the reduction of time allotments for required courses from two semesters of American history and one semester Government to one semester devoted to each course, as found in the new requirements in Los Angeles. Copies of resolutions to the Curriculum Committee of the Los Angeles City Schools and to the State Curriculum Committee are included. The committee states that no rivalry with other subjects is intended, that the materials in American history and Government cannot be taught effectively in two semesters at the eleventh-grade level, and recommends a minimum two years' course, including American history (two semesters) and Government (one semester) as required courses, with optional courses in Economics, Sociology, California History, and International Relations.

Louis Knott Koontz, in "Recent Noteworthy Books in American History," reviews briefly a series of textbooks, college texts, general as well as specialized volumes, and biographies.

Thomas M. Deam, in "Unit Organization Versus Chronological Organization in Teaching American History," in the December issue of *The School Review*, reports an experiment conducted for one semester in the twelfth grade with two classes in the Joliet, Ill., Township High School. Syllabi organized in terms of both plans were available. The number of pupils—33—was the same in both classes, but they were "only slightly matched" in terms of median mental ability and median age. The Columbia Research Bureau American History Test and an unstandardized comprehensive American history test constructed by local teachers were administered at the beginning and close of the experiment. The results were inconclusive. The mean gain of the unit-organization class for the Columbia Research Bureau American History Test is  $39.1 \pm 2.085$ , while that of the chronological-organization class is  $35.0 \pm 2.074$ ; for the local test the mean gains were  $17.8 \pm .674$  and  $19.1 \pm 1.209$ , respectively.

The papers read at the meeting of the New Jersey Association of Teachers of the Social Studies are included in the *Report of Proceedings: New Jersey State High School Conference* (New Brunswick, State University of New Jersey, 1930). John T. Greenan, East Orange High School, in "The Case Method in the Teaching of Problems of American Democracy," also raises and answers certain basic questions which are of concern in all social-studies classes. He points out the difficulties which beginning teachers find

in dealing with new ideas of class-room management, and is opposed to some of the newer methods which harbor the potential danger of converting the teacher "into a paper-correcting and clerical drudge." The teaching of facts is basic if pupils are to understand principles and truths in the social studies. The recitation has a place in social-studies teaching, not as an exclusive method, but as a teaching device. Problems have their place, but the ideas of cause and effect and of the development of civilization must not be lost sight of in teaching. Attention is called to the dangers involved in "changing a statement into a question and then calling it a problem."

The course in problems of American democracy, as distinguished from separate courses in economics, sociology, and government, is discussed at some length. It offers more vital training for real life than any other subject in the curriculum, with the possible exception of English. Suggestions in the forms of syllabi and courses of study are given. The timeliness of problems should determine the choices made for study. Methods of arousing interest and classroom procedures are outlined. The course has proved its worth, is now offered in twenty-three states, and is required for graduation in four states.

Rachel M. Jarrold, State Teachers' College, Trenton, in "Problems of Teaching History in the Normal School," mentions a new requirement of three courses in history for prospective teachers in elementary schools. Certain problems peculiar to the teaching of history to students in normal schools are: (1) the wide variety of backgrounds and previous training; (2) the inclusion of many details which will enable teachers to make the past real to children; (3) the development of an adult grasp of the events of history, combined with a knowledge of what to teach and how to teach it; (4) the development of an awareness of children's reactions to history, and the ability to present materials to children; (5) instruction in techniques for the use of equipment; overcoming of poor study habits, with practice in the organization of materials and in the adjustment of students' reading to the nature of the assignments which are made; (6) the necessity of making a complete change in the students' conception of the way in which history should be taught.

Daniel Prescott, Rutgers University, in "Social Problems and the Social Studies," maintains that a neglected value in the teaching of the social studies is training in the technique of thinking. One of the aims is "the thoughtful appreciation of the social well-being and the habit of working for its promotion." Students who enroll in the college and university courses in the social sciences have great difficulty in really sensing problems due to limited experience and due to the lack of critical penetrative insight, which seems to have become dulled. Too often they seem unable to look at life critically, to gather facts spontaneously, to develop opinions which they are able to defend, although they are willing to absorb and to reproduce in examinations what they think is desired by the instructor. They seem to have developed fixed attitudes and to have become blind to contemporary problems.

The development of a technique of thinking, including five specific habits, are outlined in some detail, with illustrative materials drawn from the social sciences.

Ross H. Smith, in "The Unit Plan in Operation," in the December 29th issue of *Journal of Education*, describes the use of the Morrison Mastery technique in social-studies classes in the Highland Park, Michigan, High School. The titles of certain units are included, and certain modifications of the plan are mentioned. The advantages of the plan are listed as follows:

1. Provides for individual differences through richness and variety of work beyond minimum essentials.
2. Assures considerable variety in the day-to-day activity of the individual and the class.
3. Incorporates valuable features of the laboratory, project and contract methods.
4. Necessitates careful planning, discrimination in the use of materials, and adherence to schedule by teachers.

5. Combines advantages of individualization and social recitation.
6. Allows the student who is backward in oral recitation to produce much worth-while written work.
7. Makes necessary some painstaking, careful written work on the part of students who tend to be brilliant in recitation but superficial.
8. Tends strongly toward making the study of history the process of acquiring an understanding of the meaning of trends and movements."

The objections to the plan are listed as follows:

- "1. Necessitates a great deal of labor in building the plan into a working program.
2. Means great amount of written matter to be checked by the teacher.
3. May cause students who have been used to a day-to-day assignment with daily recitation to flounder until they are properly adjusted by the teacher."

Ruth Mills Robinson, in "A Study of Pre-Tests in Geography," in the December issue of *The Journal of Geography*, cites the need of pre-tests as a part of effective instruction, mentions the advantages and disadvantages of the use of pre-tests, and includes certain pre-tests developed in the Hodge School, "the curriculum center for the social studies in Cleveland." The pre-test may be used to inform the teacher concerning the command of materials possessed by the pupils before instruction, thereby enabling the teacher to adapt instruction and content to meet their needs, and to prevent overlapping. It connects what pupils have already learned with the new materials. It also serves as a measuring device for incidental learning. In the first three grades the pre-test should be an oral test in most cases. Pictures and slides, along with a series of definite questions may be used. The objective test is the most satisfactory form of pre-test for the intermediate grades, and map studies may be included. Several types of items can be used in the pre-test: one type of item may lend itself more readily to the formulation of a problem, and pupils who respond differently to the various types of items will do better work. The use of pre-tests may become mechanical and deadening, and children with reading difficulties may not respond readily.

W. D. Armentrout and F. L. Whitney, in "Types of Geography Courses Offered in Teachers' Colleges," in the same issue, outline the results of a survey of courses offered in 137 teachers' colleges. A total of 1,077 courses are offered; the average credit per course is 3.9 quarter hours. Courses in regional geography account for 33 per cent. of the total number; 30 per cent. are devoted to social and economic geography; 21 per cent. are professional courses in the teaching, while 16 per cent. are devoted to technical geography. In general there is a central tendency of three courses per institution. Geography in most teachers' colleges seems to be a service subject, supplying courses for majors in other departments, particularly in elementary education. Only a few courses for junior high school teachers seem to be offered.

Richard H. Shryock, in "Neglected Health Values in the Social Studies," in a recent issue of *Educational Outlook*, traces the development of materials and forces which led to the introduction of courses in physiology in the schools, the influence of the reformers who tended to direct these courses toward propaganda against liquor and tobacco, and the influence of such forces as recreation, the scientific public health movement, and home economics in making people aware of the benefits of health. The social studies may make a contribution in the public phase of hygiene, the social aspects of medicine, the avoidance of quackery, the awareness of medical sects, the importance of consulting legitimate doctors, and the like. Courses in the social studies at the junior high-school level, and especially civics and problems of democracy include little material of the types mentioned, even though such elements are highly desirable in courses of study. History can also furnish a background and a setting for such instruction in health values.

Edwin L. Key, in "An Experiment with the Type Study," in the November issue of *Peabody Journal of Education*, reports the results of an experiment with type study method of teaching history and the textbook book method with pupils in Grades V-VII. The equivalent group procedure, with rotation of groups at the middle of the school year, was used, based on scores on the National Intelligence Test, Scale A, Forms 1 and 2. The different series in the Van Wageningen American History Scales were administered at the beginning and near the close of the experiment, and tests constructed by the author were used from time to time during the experiment. Data for the Van Wageningen tests are reported by individual-pupil scores in six tables. The type study method, according to the results, showed a slight superiority in the fifth and sixth grades, while there was a slight advantage in favor of the textbook method in the seventh grade.

H. G. Shields, in "School and College Courses in Economics," in the November issue of *Journal of Educational Sociology*, presents the results of a questionnaire inquiry in which 39 colleges and universities and 33 high schools contributed information, and describes the course in "The Economic Order" offered in the University of Chicago. Data on most-used textbooks and the distribution of time devoted to different phases of the subject are summarized in four tables. The high school course tends to be an abbreviated survey course at the college level, with few variations in the amount of time devoted to different topics. Consumption and production receive more consideration at the high-school level than at the college level, in terms of the time allotments.

"Civics Vitalized in Roanoke," by Mary B. Duncan, in the November 10th issue of *Journal of Education*, is an account of the study of the proposed city plan in civics classes, enrolling pupils in Grades XI and XII, in the Jefferson High School, Roanoke, Virginia. The classes studied different phases of the proposed city plan during the time it was being formulated, considered, and adopted by the city. Pupils were organized into small groups to study and to report to the classes. The plan was made the theme for the commencement program, in which six pupils participated. The office of the city commission co-operated in supplying materials.

Alice C. Rodewald's *A Fifth Grade Experiment in the Social Studies* (Ethical Culture Branch School, 27 West 75th Street, New York City, 40 cents) is a 38-page pamphlet, attractive in format and adequately illustrated with the different activities in which the children were engaged. The materials for study included certain phases of Roman and Medieval history. The discussion of procedure and materials is interspersed with examples of the written work, charts, maps, and other types of work completed by the children. *Ethical Extra*, a collection of materials written for leaflets issued by pupils in the Elementary Department of the Ethical Culture School (33 Central Park West, New York City, 65 cents), is a 62-page pamphlet. Some of the materials, dealing with history, excursions, travel, and visits to the Hudson Guild Farm, will be of interest to teachers of the social studies.

The Social Studies Round Table of the Kansas State Teachers' Association held at Manhattan in November included a luncheon session devoted to business details to be considered by the group. A committee appointed to make recommendations to the State School Book Commission made a report.

The afternoon session included the following program: Professor W. D. Ross, Kansas State Teachers' College, Emporia, "Some Objectives in History"; Principal E. M. Chestnut, Beloit High School, "Some Suggestions with Reference to Teaching American History"; Professor James C. Malin, University of Kansas, "Can We Safely Give up the Chronological Order in History to Take up the Unit Plan?" There was also a discussion of "The Workbook in History."

Professor Ross characterized history as more than a chronicle of what men accomplished; rather it is a record of what men thought, felt, and accomplished. Everything is in a state of becoming, and history is a record of growth, change, and development. Professor Malin insisted that the difference between success and failure depended upon the quality of the teacher in terms of ability, personality, and mastery of subject-matter rather than whether a particular plan of organization of materials is used.

Mr. G. E. Watkins, Garnett Public Schools, served as chairman, and Professor Ralph R. Price, Kansas State Agricultural College, is permanent Secretary.

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*William Gregg, Factory Master of the Old South.* By Broadus Mitchell. The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1928. xi, 331 pp.

*George Washington, the Savior of the States, 1777-1781.* By Rupert Hughes. William Morrow and Company, New York, 1930. x, 820 pp.

*An Epoch and a Man, Martin Van Buren and His Times.* By Denis Tilden Lynch. Horace Liveright, New York, 1929. ix, 566 pp.

*Charles Fenno Hoffman.* By Homer F. Barnes. Columbia University Press, New York, 1930. viii, 361 pp.

*Paul Revere.* By Emerson Taylor. Edwin Valentine Mitchell and Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1930. ix, 237 pp.

*The Life and Times of Charles Follen McKim.* By Charles Moore. Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston, 1929. xii, 356 pp.

*Life and Letters of Matthew Fontaine Maury.* By Jaquelin Ambler Caskie. Richmond Press, Inc., Richmond, 1928. 191 pp.

*Benjamin H. Hill, Secession and Reconstruction.* By Haywood J. Pearce, Jr. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1928. ix, 330 pp.

*Stephen J. Field, Craftsman of the Law.* By Carl Brent Swisher. The Brookings Institution, Washington, 1930. ix, 473 pp.

*Seth Harding, Mariner—A Naval Picture of the Revolution.* By James L. Howard. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. xv, 301 pp.

*Myron T. Herrick, Friend of France—An Autobiographical Biography.* By Col. T. Bentley Mott. Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., 1929. x, 399 pp.

*Carl Schurz, Militant Liberal.* By Joseph Schafer. The Antes Press, Evansville, Wisconsin, 1930. xix, 270 pp.

The volumes here reviewed cover a wide range of personalities and interests ranging from master architect to dispenser of justice. Without exception the men around which these biographies were built were of sufficient intellectual stature to make an imprint upon the civilization of their day. Naturally the portraits presented vary considerably. Not all are of full length and the literary colors in one or two instances are pretty drab. Yet taken as a whole these volumes merit the attention of every serious-minded student who would enrich his knowledge of American civilization.

Professor Mitchell in his scholarly volume attempts to accomplish two purposes. First to set forth the essential facts of William Gregg's life, and secondly to record in some detail the operations of the factory which Gregg built in Graniteville, South Carolina. No one who reads these pages will doubt that he has succeeded. Gregg, born on the Virginia frontier, became a jeweler's apprentice and

then set up in business for himself in Columbia, South Carolina. Here he prospered, and in 1838 after a trip to Europe he moved to Charlestown where he lent his name to a partnership engaged in the jeweler and silversmith business. Even before this time he was interested in the possibility of diversifying Southern industry, and henceforth he devoted his life to this undertaking. And it is with the story of Gregg's efforts in this direction that Professor Mitchell utilizes most of his space. Gregg was truly the father of Southern cotton manufacture. But even more he stands forth in these pages as a bourgeois keenly alive to what could be accomplished in the South if only the section would abandon its now diversified agricultural system. Events were to prove that Gregg was a generation ahead of his time.

Rupert Hughes' third volume on Washington covers the period from the Battle of Trenton to the end of the Revolution. Those who were inclined to condemn Mr. Hughes upon the appearance of his first volume of being a mere literary person unqualified to be a biographer-historian, and of being primarily interested in besmirching the character of Washington, will, if fair-minded, have to revise their estimate of both Mr. Hughes' ability and his purpose in writing these volumes. For here we have in the volume under review all sorts of evidence that Mr. Hughes has used all the paraphernalia of the scientific historian. Indeed his pages fairly bristle with source references and first-hand quotations, and Washington, instead of being depicted as a second-rater, stands forth in these pages as towering above all other Americans of his time in wisdom, valor and unselfish devotion to his country. "The more I study Washington," writes Mr. Hughes (pages 689-90), "the greater and better I think him, yet I am not trying to prove him great or good. I am trying solely to describe him as he was and let him speak for himself. He was a man of such tremendous undeniable achievement that he does not need to be bolstered with propaganda, protected by a priestcraft of suppression, or celebrated by any more Fourth of July oratory." Those who put their stamp of approval upon the earlier volumes are again happy to reiterate that Mr. Hughes is making an outstanding contribution to the literature of American history.

The person who aspires to control one of America's complex political machines or who wants to see how such a machine is fashioned will carefully peruse his Lynch's volume on Van Buren. By recourse to manuscript material Mr. Lynch shows how this son of a farmer and tavern keeper rose to the presidency of the United States. With a matchless genius for political intrigue Van Buren and not Jackson appears as the maker of the democratic machine of 1830. The foundation stone of this machine was Van Buren's creature, the Albany Regency. Mr. Lynch quotes freely to show that Van Buren was more than an intriguer, however, and no one can read these quotations and Mr. Lynch's scholarly interpretation of them without concluding that Van Buren was a statesman even though perhaps not one of the first magnitude. Certainly the Van Buren of these pages is a very different personage from the Van Buren portrayed by earlier biographers. A helpful bibliography is appended.

Charles Fenno Hoffman was one of a small group of American writers who during the second quarter of the nineteenth century endeavored to foster a national spirit in our literature. Many of this group were New Yorkers, as was Hoffman, who was born in New York in 1806. With a wealth of research, Dr. Barnes traces the outstanding features of Hoffman's life—his ancestry, youth, formal education, his achievements as an editor, essayist, critic, and writer of fiction, and his last days which were marked by bitter disappointment, ill-health and even madness. One hundred twenty-four pages of the volume are devoted to Hoffman's correspondence and to his uncollected poems. Those interested in the history of American nationalism and in the Knickerbocker writers will want to examine this scholarly volume.

In his prefatory note Mr. Taylor tells the reader that he has based his account of Paul Revere on a study of

"original letters, official documents, business records, and other family papers which throw light on the varied activities of this patriot, soldier, master-craftsman, and great industrial pioneer." Moreover, he assures us that the earlier traditions and accounts of Revere have been "weighed and sifted anew." All this may be so, but the reader who has his mind prepared by the preface for a definite story of Revere is bound to be disappointed, first, because Mr. Taylor's account is incomplete, and secondly, because the reader is without specific evidence for many of the statements made. Even a bibliographical statement is omitted. Chapter VII, dealing with the post-Revolutionary years is, in many respects, the most informing and satisfactory. The volume is well-written.

Mr. Moore's volume on Charles Follen McKim is a most valuable contribution to the history of American architecture. It is based on upwards of ten thousand letters written to McKim during his professional career, hundreds of personal letters and reminiscences of friends and associates. From this mass of data Mr. Moore has quoted freely, with the result that McKim emerges from these pages as a great personality. The reader, in other words, gets a very clear notion of the kind of man he was, what his ideals were and why he loved his work. The key to McKim's life, Mr. Moore shows, was first the expression of beauty in visible form, and secondly, the inspiration he gave others to express themselves in terms of beauty. Moreover, the volume contains a mine of information about the American Academy at Rome, which owes its founding to McKim. Mr. Moore frankly states that he does not undertake to pass critical judgment on the architectural products of McKim's mind, but an appendix which lists the works of McKim, Mead and White from 1880 to 1910 afford some notion of his influence.

Jaquelin Ambler Caskie's little volume on the Life and Letters of Matthew Fontaine Maury, inventor, geographer, author and founder of the National Observatory and Signal Service, was written for the double purpose of acquainting the public with Commodore Maury and of calling attention to what the author believes to have been injustice of the federal government to Maury's memory. No one can read it without realizing that Maury undoubtedly deserves to be better known to students of American civilization.

Professor Pearce's volume on Hill fills a gap in the annals of Southern biography and places Hill where he belongs, namely, on a par with Alexander Stephens, Robert Toombs, Howell Cobb and Joseph E. Brown. Hill appears from this study to have been devoted to the Union and to the federal constitution, even though he participated in secession and vigorously opposed the Reconstruction Acts. He regarded the Civil War as an effort to preserve outside of the Old Union the principles of the Constitution of 1787. Professor Pearce is of the opinion that this fact explains why Hill was one of the last prominent confederate officials to acknowledge defeat. Hill's intemperate fight against the Reconstruction Acts was a matter of honor as well as politics. An orator rather than a politician, honest and straightforward in his dealings, he became a prophet of the New South. The volume as a whole is a first-rate piece of scholarly writing.

Dr. Swisher's biography of Field is an outstanding one, first because it is inclusive and substantial, and secondly, because it is well written. Not only does it present the life story of a great pillar of the law, but a cross-section of America during the momentous years preceding and following the Civil War. The forces which shaped Field's life and influenced his work as a lawyer and a judge stand out. Perhaps nowhere in the volume do we get a better idea of Field's outlook on life than in the introductory paragraph of chapter XV (The Income Tax). "A great many of Field's Supreme Court opinions reveal not only his knowledge of the law, but his ideas as to what was good and what was bad in the economic life of the country. Again and again he stressed the importance of great corporations in the achievement of things that were worth while. Because of their importance he insisted upon their

being protected to the full extent of the law. Nothing stirred his ire more quickly than shortsighted efforts to restrict corporate activities. Such efforts were in his estimation...the dictates of the vicious doctrines of socialism and communism, and it was the duty of the courts to bring about their frustration. Yet his interest seems not to have been in corporations as such, but rather in the achievements of men of vision and energy who used corporations as tools. His opposition, with but occasional exceptions, was to government interference with freedom of action anywhere in the business world. When business and industrial leaders garnered rich rewards for their labors Field was ready to use the machinery of the law to protect them against the resentment and cupidity of the masses." Field, in other words, was a product of an age of *laissez-faire*. The volume is remarkably free from the blandishments of the journalistic and romantic biographer.

The volume on Seth Harding resurrects an all but forgotten naval officer of the American Revolution. To date John Paul Jones has been allowed to overshadow his contemporaries. In fact, many are prone to think of him as being the whole American navy during the Revolutionary era. Depending largely upon manuscript material Mr. Howard has written a most entertaining story. Less dashing than Jones, thinking always in terms of his country rather than of himself, Harding was an honest, God-fearing, down-East Yankee who had plenty of patriotism and plenty of pluck. The volume affords the reader insight into some of the difficulties confronting Harding as a naval officer. One of the appendices gives verbatim the private *Journal* of Captain Joseph Hardy who was aboard the *Confederacy* which Harding commanded. Mr. Howard has made a distinct contribution to the literature of the American Revolution.

"An Autobiographical Biography," the sub-title of the Herrick volume, is used because Colonel Mott, who as Mr. Herrick's military attaché in Paris, and one of his closest friends and associates, was selected by Mr. Her-

rick to prepare the volume under review. Most of the material, therefore, was furnished directly to Colonel Mott by the late Ambassador to Paris. Whatever it may lack, therefore, in critical appraisal is more than compensated for by the many international episodes, personal anecdotes and intimate glimpses of some of the great personages who strode cross the world's stage during Herrick's lifetime. Perhaps if fifty years hence a biography of Herrick is written its author will be able to put Herrick in his proper historical niche a bit more definitely than does the volume under review. But such a volume is not likely to be more interestingly and engrossingly written.

Dr. Schafer's compact volume on Schurz fills a long-felt need. It is scholarly and yet not long-winded. Seventy-five pages are devoted to Schurz's twenty-four years in Europe prior to his coming to America, while the remaining one hundred and seventy-odd pages trace in bold outline his career on this side of the Atlantic. Some there may be who will complain that the volume is heavily freighted with political material to the neglect of other aspects of Schurz's life, but after all it must be remembered that it was in the political arena that Schurz achieved his greatest fame.—C.

*Portrait of a Diplomatist.* By Harold Nicolson. Houghton, Mifflin, Boston, 1930. xvi, 337 pp.

Here is a book by one of the most discerning and skillful biographers of our day. That he happens to have been a diplomatist himself, and that he writes about his father, who was one of the four or five leading British diplomatists in 1914, add to the authority of his book. That he sees his father dispassionately as a nemesis-ridden actor in the tragedy of 1914 makes the story of Nicolson from 1870 to 1918 one of compelling interest to students of the origins of the Great War. The author knows the literature of his subject in the best sense, that is, he has not only arranged it in his mind but has reached mature deductions from it. It is true that his work gains greatly in force by the lit-

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erary brilliance of his generalizations, but they are astonishingly valid and, irrespective of differences of opinion, it can be said that there are sentences in this book (notably in its introduction) which in sheer historical weight are the equivalent of whole chapters in less enlightened works. A few quotations from the introduction will indicate the points of view in the general treatment, but it should be remembered that the book is written in a truly humble spirit, and amounts in all to a fair-minded commentary on human political frailty. A fact which is as symptomatic as any is that Nicolson, who appraises diplomats and historians very critically throughout, finds himself only once (and slightly) in disagreement with S. B. Fay. The quotations follow. "That slow, and at the time unrealized, process, by which England and Germany were gradually impelled towards their common destruction." "The old diplomatist has not been fairly treated by his posterity. If he failed to foresee the war, he is, and with full justice, called a fool; if he did foresee the war, he is, quite unjustly, considered a knave." "What was wrong [with European diplomats] was the civilization which they represented." "As regards the origins (1900-1914) I consider Germany at fault; though, even there, less at fault than Austria or Russia. As regards the causes (1500-1900) I consider that the main onus falls on England."

A slow and deliberative reading of Sir Arthur Nicolson's career is likely to bring out, perhaps even more clearly than Harold Nicolson planned, the fact that Great Britain, "satiated" with empire, provided an irresistible target for French, Russian, and German sniping, and that while France was on the whole loyal to her bargain with Britain because she had maneuvered Grey into a tacit defensive alliance, Germany was woefully weak in reaching correct estimates of the world situation and her own true strength in it, and Russia was the *enfant terrible*, badly served by her diplomats, incapable of loyalty to agreements with allies or rivals, and blundering about like a bear in the crowded European china shop. Incidentally, it is encouraging and like a guarantee of Mr. Nicolson's general historical sense, to find that he takes it for granted that Russia before 1914 was not sufficiently interested in the Straits to go to war for them. The Balkans had supplanted the Straits in Russian policy, but too many historians still fail to admit it.

It is fascinating in this book to follow Nicolson from the Foreign Office (1870), to Berlin (1874), to Peking (1876), to Berlin (1878), to Constantinople (1879), to Egypt (1882), to Athens (1884), to Teheran (1885), to Budapest (1888), to Constantinople (1893), to Bulgaria (1894), to Morocco (1895), to Madrid (with an excursion to dominate Algieras, 1905), to St. Petersburg (1906), and back to head the Foreign Office in 1910. His views of Russia and Germany grew more and more certain, and he came finally to an almost despairing conviction that the Entente must be publicly defined so that Russia could be kept in line, France be heartened sufficiently to resist German bullying, and Germany herself be brought to realize what the balance of forces in Europe amounted to. It was unfortunate that Grey's self-deception and optimism and Sir William Tyrell's seconding of him kept Sir Eyre Crowe and Nicolson from complete sympathy with them, and prevented a public declaration by Great Britain of what she felt her obligations to be. For this, of course, the parliamentary system and the professional pacificism of part of the Liberal party were somewhat to blame. It is welcome to have a realistic estimate of Encirclement in this book. "The German historians are perfectly correct in regarding him (Nicolson) as a protagonist in the so-called policy of encirclement," but the term "Encirclement" is misleading. Nicolson, because of the German naval challenge, feared that Germany might overawe France and Russia, engineer a continental coalition and reduce a Britain, impotent in Mediterranean and Central Asia, to a point where Winston Churchill could be dismissed at German bidding as easily as Delcassé had been. Nicolson's policy was not offensive strangulation, and he wanted to make colonial concessions, but he served a selfish

country that sought for a European balance in order to preserve as long as possible an empire won in the past four hundred years.

One could go on at great length to summarize an already summary book, but it needs to be read and read slowly to be appreciated. It is full of keen and generous portraits, because Harold Nicolson is practiced in such estimates. He is much less nationalistic than his rather remarkably broad-minded father. He is not hide-bound about any ultimate validity in "documents." To him von Bethmann-Hollweg and Grey were the only "morally unassailable" pre-war statesmen. From 1906 on his picture of Europe is remarkable, and contains some new materials for historians. From 1910 on he uses, appropriately generously, private and confidential materials not made public before, and drawn from the personal correspondence of Nicolson and the ambassadors, of Grey and the Cabinet, and of the Foreign Office intermediaries. Especially notable is a minute (and the comments it provoked) drawn up in April, 1912, concerning Anglo-French relations before the naval agreement and the Grey-Cambon letters. In all this book will interest almost any reader, and students of war origins would be foolish to neglect it.—B.

*Royal Government in America. A Study of the British Colonial System before 1783.* By L. W. Labaree. Yale University Press, 1930. xii, 491 pp.

The title indicates the approach of the writer, who was trained in the school of Professor Charles M. Andrews. Whereas Osgood and his students were more concerned with the lesser colonial worlds, these in the treatment of modern students of colonial history become units in an imperial state. America included, lest the incautious student forget, the West Indian islands, as well as the mainland.

Before the close of the War for American Independence nearly every colony was governed directly under the crown, and the means by which royal authority was exercised furnishes the basis for Professor Labaree's study. The commissions and instructions to the governors were the Baedekers with which a remote royalty endowed its agents, but to his dismay a governor often found that they were guides with unseeing eyes. Necessarily, therefore, the author must be concerned largely with the reactions to the policies of the royal administration, particularly in the struggle between the crown and the colonial assemblies over the royal prerogative, for around this theme the whole constitutional history of the colonies turns.

We have retailed here in an intensive manner the relations of the crown to the assembly, legislation, finance, governor's salary and the administration of justice. Representative examples of problems in these spheres have been chosen to illustrate the controversies which they frequently provoked, and these reveal the irreconcilable points of view of crown and colony. With the history of the Parliament at home kept fresh in their memories lesser legislators in local assemblies followed the maternal example, and gradually whittled away royal supremacy, and even followed the Westminster legislature to the final step of revolution. Colonists were quick to see that the home administrative officers failed to reinforce with overt action the royal instructions, and in the course of the eighteenth century the assemblies were less and less willing to be hindered by the governors' instructions. The crown was meeting its match in the assemblies in matters of legislation and administration in the generation that preceded 1776, and the balance of power was clearly shifting from the governor to the legislature. Victory after victory was chalked up by the assemblies over the prerogative, and, lest an utter rout ensue, the Revolution became inevitable, for the mind of the generality was not prepared for a Commonwealth of Nations.

As a rule those who won appointments as governors were capable men and were typical of the contemporary British governing classes. It is rightly suggested by the author that critics of royal administration in the colonies

who score the character of the colonial governors should first gain familiarity with the office-holders of equal rank in England during these years. There is something more to be said for the governor: if he did attempt to apply his instructions discreetly he was suspected of being weak, and the home officials became critical. The instructions repeated to each successive governor revealed no change in the policy that the colonies existed primarily for Great Britain's benefit, and when the interests of the two conflicted it was the British that was first to be protected. But a governor who left for overseas convinced that it was his duty to uphold such a theory suffered many bruises when he ran up against the hard facts of colonial experience. The growing self-consciousness of the Americans could not accept the theory that they existed as "a means to a British end." The spirit of the constitution on both sides of the Atlantic made royal interference with legislation in either place an anachronism. The prerogative was particularly weak in those colonies which played an important part in the inter-colonial wars. Through their control over the necessary military appropriations they forced the governors into many compromises of their executive position, and by the end of the period of inter-colonial conflict the assemblies were in "almost complete control of finance." The assemblies conquered the governors in this controversy, and when parliament attempted to win the control that the crown had lost colonial opposition was predestined.

For the constitutional history of the background of the War for Independence, Professor Labaree's arduous study is indispensable. The reader wonders that the irrepressible conflict was so long delayed. It will come as news to most students that "the personal dependence of the governors on the assemblies [for their salaries] has been greatly exaggerated both by contemporary British officials and by later historians." (P. 371.) It was surprising to

find so little mention of Nova Scotia in this otherwise very comprehensive treatise, particularly in view of the fact that Brebner wrote so thorough an account of the administration in his "New England's Outpost," a title which is conspicuously absent in a good bibliography. This and one or two lesser flaws are of minor consideration in a volume which is well worthy of the recent award to it of the Justin Winsor prize.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

College of the City of New York.

*The Public Finances of Post-War France.* By Robert Murray Haig. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. xxviii, 463 pp. \$5.50.

*The Process of Inflation in France, 1914-1927.* By James Harvey Rogers. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. xx, 378 pp. \$5.00.

*The Economic Development of Post-War France: A Survey of Production.* By William F. Ogburn and William Jaffé. Columbia University Press, New York, 1929. xii, 613 pp. \$6.00.

These volumes constitute the first three of a series of *Social and Economic Studies of Post-War France*, sponsored by the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Sciences, and edited by Carlton J. H. Hayes. The series aims to present a survey of those facts in French public life which have been of significance in the great economic crisis through which France has passed since the close of the World War.

The cost of the war and of the reconstruction in France arising from the war amounted to more than one hundred billion pre-war francs. To meet this sudden and tremendous demand upon her national budget France at the outbreak of the conflict was totally unprepared financially because of her failure to modernize her system of taxation during the preceding years. Moreover, until May, 1916,

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the government considered it unnecessary to increase existing taxes or to create new ones; and, although in the last two years of the struggle France underwent "the greatest fiscal reform since the French Revolution," her taxpayers actually contributed nothing toward the costs of the war while hostilities were in progress. During this period France spent approximately five borrowed francs for every franc received through the avenues of taxation. An account of France's accumulation of indebtedness and of the various efforts of successive governments to meet colossal national budgets is given in *The Public Finances of Post-War France*. This interesting volume, though not primarily political, is certainly indispensable for an understanding of the kaleidoscopic political history of France during the past decade.

The post-war period opened with Frenchmen apathetic on the subject of public finances. Germany was defeated and "Germany must pay!" In 1920 the national budget recognized a special account (later called "budget") of "recoverable" expenditure, to which were charged all capital outlays for the purpose of reconstructing the devastated regions and payments of certain classes of war pensions and war indemnities. These expenditures were to be met ultimately by German payments of reparation, but in the meantime the budget was to draw all its resources from internal loans. Ordinary expenditures of the government were to be covered by an "ordinary" budget, and in 1920 for the first time something like a real effort was made to establish taxes lucrative enough to meet "ordinary" budgetary charges. This tax reform of 1920, Frenchmen believed, was the last and utmost sacrifice that could be expected from them.

Lacking tangible payments from Germany, the French government was forced by the gigantic task of reconstruction to float loans as rapidly as the market would absorb them until January, 1924, when a loan yielding 6.29 per cent. was a flat failure. "Early in 1924 the people plainly said: 'No more loans.' But at the same time they created an impossible situation for the leaders by chanting: 'No more taxes.'" This baffling problem Poincaré bequeathed to the Left Bloc in 1924. The next two years witnessed a struggle to determine who should bear the burden of war and post-war finance now that it was becoming apparent that Germany could not or would not. The Left Bloc's attempts to introduce a capital levy or a forced consolidation of the debts at lower interest rates were defeated by Parliament which thus in effect decreed a policy of inflation.

For one who desires to study the phenomena of inflation, *The Process of Inflation in France, 1914-1927*, is of great value. It is devoted primarily to discovering the outstanding effects of inflation in a modern industrial and agricultural country. It is hard going, however, for the general reader who is apt to get lost in the maze of equations, formulæ, graphs, and tables. On the other hand, those who have a special or technical interest in the subject will find here a thorough discussion of the relation between government borrowing and the movement of prices, circulation, and exchange rates, as well as a reliable analysis of the French banking system.

By May, 1926, an acute financial crisis had begun which culminated in the panic of the following July when the franc fell to approximately two cents. Poincaré was drafted to head a new cabinet. The nation was now sufficiently frightened to take its medicine. By August 3d Parliament had enacted a new tax law, lightening the burden on rich taxpayers and increasing the levy on those of more moderate means by raising the schedule of income rates and by increasing and extending indirect taxes. Within five months, too, it had passed a balanced budget for 1927. By the close of the year the franc had been raised to approximately four cents, where it was given *de facto* stabilization.

Although the spectacular depreciation of the franc undoubtedly affected the trade and industry of France, the "greater part of the lasting changes in French industry and agriculture are to be explained by something more fundamental than monetary fluctuations," state the authors

of *The Economic Development of Post-War France*. An introductory chapter in this admirable volume explains the economic position of France on the eve of the war, notes the effects of the war, and sets forth the industrial consequences of the new peace conditions. In the remaining chapters of Part I the authors describe in a general way how France has increased her natural resources by post-war territorial expansion, how she has modernized her productive equipment and developed her power, how she has rationalized her industry, adopting new techniques and new inventions, and how she has expanded her business organization. Part II consists of a number of more technical monographic studies dealing with agriculture, foreign trade, mines, key industries, and combination tendencies. It seems probable, the authors conclude, that the post-war greater France will rapidly rise to high rank as an industrial nation.

These studies are well done. They are carefully documented, are full of illuminating tables, diagrams, graphs, and maps, have valuable bibliographies, and are adequately indexed. They are especially welcome because of the great difficulty of procuring reliable statistics on the French complicated financial system.

F. LEE BENNS.

Indiana University.

*A Short History of the French People*. By Charles Guignebert. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1930. 2 vols. xxiii, 440; xxvi, 738. \$15.00. Translated by F. G. Richmond.

The Sorbonne of the University of Paris offers among its many attractions the *Cours de la Civilisation Française*, courses which are destined for foreign students who desire to secure a bird's-eye view of French culture and yet have only a limited amount of time to devote to the task. Many are the American students who have taken advantage of the opportunity afforded by these courses, and who, as a result, have sat at the feet of Professor Charles Guignebert as he has delivered in his witty and original way his lectures on the past of the French people. Those who have heard Professor Guignebert and those who are interested in taking their first steps in the study of the history of France will welcome his *Short History of the French People*, which is based on the material amassed for his course. They will find it an admirable introduction to French history, for from long experience in teaching foreigners Professor Guignebert has sensed the difficulties that beset those who are non-French, and he has endeavored to make the trail as easy and as clear as possible.

The first volume of this work begins with a discussion of the territory which we now call France during prehistoric times, and continues with a treatment of French geography and the history of France up to about 1559. The second volume begins with a treatment of the Renaissance in France and comes to a virtual conclusion with the War of 1870. Only eleven pages are devoted to the period from 1870 to 1930, and these are filled with a general consideration of the more pressing problems of French life. It is disappointing to the American who has become enamored of present international relations to have the narrative come so abruptly to a stop, but Professor Guignebert has evidently judged it prudent not to venture into that labyrinth of bitterness that preceded and succeeded the World War.

The ground that is covered by the book is tilled in a very conventional and orderly manner. There are no novel innovations and no startling omissions. On the whole, Professor Guignebert is inclined to remain faithful to political history, and yet he devotes large sections to feudalism and the *ancien régime*, and pays some attention to cultural achievement in the Renaissance and Louis XIV periods. The matter covered is accurate, and is evidently based largely on Lavis's (editor) *Histoire de France*, rather than on any extensive personal research. The short bibliographies at the end of the chapters indicate that this is undoubtedly the case. These bibliographies will be very helpful to those who desire to pursue any questions further and who know French. English books on French history

have been consistently omitted, to say nothing of those in German; and even many of the more recent French monographs, such as Halphen's *Les barbares* and Henri Sée's *La France économique et sociale au XVIII<sup>e</sup> siècle*, have not been included. The bibliographies contain, however, a valuable list of the standard works in French.

The style of the work is clear, precise, but not brilliant, although at times Professor Guignebert writes with the charm of a master, as, for instance, in his discussions of the *Ancien Régime* and of the Reformation. In the latter particularly he displays that sure command which one observes in his *History of Christianity*. Altogether too often, however, he slips into the rut of the chronicler, as in his description of the religious wars of the sixteenth century, and one wishes for the classroom where the personality of the man might be felt. Unfortunately, Professor Guignebert's translator aids him very little. The English is stiff, very conventional, and at times even obsolete (as, for example, the use of "feudatories" in the treatment of feudalism). Tenses are frequently abused, for the translator in his narrative will jump from the perfect to the present and back again without the slightest hesitancy, which may be all right in French, but which is very dangerous in English.

With all its faults the book is a good one, and who is there who can write a survey of this nature that will please everyone? It will be welcomed by the layman who desires to learn the past of France and by the student who is not too far advanced. It is, indeed, a worthy rival to Duruy's *History of France*.

S. B. CLOUGH.

Columbia University.

*European Imperialism in Africa*. By Halford Lancaster Hoskins. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1930. 118 pp.

With this volume in the *Berkshire Studies in European History*, the publishers have begun to provide more durable bindings for their series. If this policy is extended,

it will mean that the volumes will take on increased usefulness for schools making use of them for departmental duplicates.

Professor Hoskins has provided a straightforward, competent and comprehensive narrative of his subject. Emphasis is properly laid upon the nineteenth century and in that century upon the period since 1882. The third chapter on "Problems and Consequences of Imperialism" deals more with political problems and consequences, although racial and economic matters are also discussed. Unity has been a difficult problem to solve. The very geography of the continent makes the story of Africa consist of a series of parallel stories which are not easy to correlate. Possibly the best approach for abbreviated treatment would be in a number of selected situations, which for the purpose of a general course might serve as representative of the rest. Professor Hoskins' attempt, for example, to compress the background of the Boer War into six pages, results in allusions to Majuba Hill, the London Convention of 1884, and to Rhodesia, which receive at that point no adequate explanation. These allusions are correct, unlike that to the Afrikaner Bond (page 72), and they are essential to the argument. But as they stand they simply bewilder the student. The section on the Belgian Congo, by contrast, is a specially happy piece of condensation. The book is free from prepossession for or against imperialism, and is accompanied by an admirable bibliography.

LELAND H. JENKS.

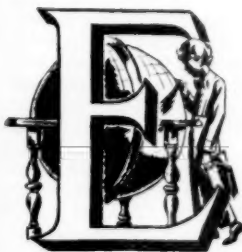
Wellesley College.

*Bach, the Historical Approach*. By Charles Sanford Terry. Oxford University Press, London and New York, 1930. 157 pp. \$2.50.

This volume is a collection of four lectures delivered in America in 1930 by Dr. Terry, the great authority on Bach, together with an essay solving a problem in the Bach genealogy which proves that Bach's direct lineage came to

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an end in 1871. Of the lectures, the first, *The Historical Approach*, and the third, *Bach's Cantatas*, depend somewhat for their full appreciation upon a fair knowledge of musical terminology and the theories of composition in the one, and an acquaintance with specific works in the other. The second and the fourth, *The Leipzig Cantorate in Bach's Time* and *The Choral in Bach's Usage*, are full of interest for anyone who has ever enjoyed Bach.

In the description of the Leipzig cantorate Dr. Terry succeeds in his purpose of making Bach "visible...in his daily experiences." We see the pious Cantor, his "bob-wig set carelessly over a massive face," voluntarily sitting in a cold church through a long morning sermon, after his duties of conducting the Cantata are over. And this after a week in which he has trained the choirs for the four churches controlled by the Leipzig Council, as well as instructing the youths in Luther's Catechism. Sometime in between the performances of these arduous duties he wrote, during his twenty-seven years in Leipzig, 265 Cantatas.

This picture of the devout Cantor lends support to the thesis of the fourth lecture on Bach's use of the choral. According to Dr. Terry it is in this essentially German musical form that Bach's genius reached its highest development. In Italy and France lies the ancestry of his Clavier and instrumental compositions; the Choral is his birthright. In his youth he could forget his congregation in the joy of extemporizing hymn-tunes; on his death-bed he was at work on the same melodies. Dr. Terry proves his point.

Lecture I, as the title indicates, traces briefly the development of musical composition before Bach's time, and discusses him in relation to his contemporaries. The most interesting feature of Lecture III is the record of the faithful work of the Bachgesellschaft, which at the instigation of Robert Schumann in 1851 undertook and spent fifty years in carrying out the belated publication of a complete edition of the master's works.

ADELE BREBNER.

Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, N. Y.

*The Dutch Barrier: 1705-1719.* By the late Roderick Geikie and Isabel A. Montgomery. University Press, Cambridge, England, 1930. xxi, 418 pp.

Based extensively on British and Dutch documentary material, both manuscript and printed, this is a detailed study of a much neglected but none the less important phase of international history. Security, that ever potent consideration of diplomacy, was one of the principal aims emphasized by the Dutch for their participation in the War of the Spanish Succession. Expressed in terms of *Barrier Treaty*, the real security problem was, at that time as it has been so frequently since, the status of the Southern Netherlands. To this complicated subject the present investigation is a sound historical contribution, revealing at the same time, clearly and dispassionately, a typical cross-section of the motives and practices of modern diplomacy.

So thorough and scholarly a treatise should have been better equipped with technical appurtenances. There is no index, and the bibliography is merely a list of archival papers, documentary collections, and a limited number of memoirs and secondary works. It is unfortunate that the value of a critical and suggestive bibliography is not yet more generally appreciated. What is entitled a biographical note on Geikie, by G. M. Trevelyan, is a very brief, intimate memorial of one about whom the reader would fain know more.

The first five chapters by Geikie, posthumously associated with the succeeding eight chapters by Miss Montgomery, deal with the negotiations of 1705-09, leading to the first barrier treaty. They constitute a closely written narrative, presenting in great detail the motives and exchanges of the Dutch, British, and imperial diplomatists. At times the details jostle one another so closely that it is difficult to discern the general trend of affairs. No attempt is made to indicate the philosophy of the barrier principle and its possible import in the European scheme. Geikie clearly shows, however, the interrelation of Dutch interests

in security with the commercial importance to both Dutch and British of the Southern Netherlands, the connection of these factors with the Protestant Succession in England, and the significance of them all, especially in British eyes, for the preliminaries of a successful and permanent peace. In the first barrier treaty of 1709 the Dutch, Geikie concludes, secured not only an effective barrier, but also virtual economic control of the Southern Netherlands, thus winning the negotiations on all counts.

Miss Montgomery's work on the second and third treaties is broader and more generally illuminating. Linking up party vicissitudes in English politics with successes in the Assiento agreement and elsewhere, she explains how the British secured the elimination of the first barrier treaty and supplanted it with that of 1713, which reduced the Dutch advantages to a nominal barrier and made them almost entirely dependent, diplomatically, upon Britain. Finally, after Utrecht, peace between Louis XIV and the Emperor caused the substitution of the third barrier treaty (1715). By this, the Dutch really lost out completely; although the barrier system remained, in name, it was actually of no effect. The transfer of the Southern Netherlands from Spain to Austria rendered the barrier obsolete; it was virtually negated, after 1715, by the British policy of making the Dutch and the Emperor mutually dependent in this region, which became, thereby, weaker rather than stronger. The system never worked, and by 1745, when the French easily burst through the barrier, all pretence of its effectiveness was gone. It had been essentially a selfish, dog-in-the-manger system, subjecting the Southern Netherlands to humiliation and economic exploitation, and not producing security for the Dutch or any other state.

There are five appendices containing, among other special notes, the text of the three barrier treaties.

LAURENCE B. PACKARD.

Amherst College.

*Turkey Faces West.* By Halidé Edib. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. 273 pp.

Outstanding among the women of the New Turkey—too outstanding, indeed, to be typical—is, of course, the famous Mme. Halidé Edib. The first Turkish lady to receive a university degree, Mme. Edib also has distinguished herself as a writer and novelist, as professor of western literature at the University of Istanbul, and as aide-de-camp to Mustapha Kemal in some of his most glorious military campaigns. So far-reaching have her activities in the sphere of social work been, that she might well be called the Turkish Jane Addams. She has achieved considerable popularity as a speaker in several foreign countries, and recently has been appointed Lecturer in Near Eastern History at Columbia University. To her well-known *Memoirs* and *Turkish Ordeal*, which remain as excellent records of Turkey's struggles, foreign and domestic, during those trying years when the Republic was in process of formation, Mme. Edib now has added a third important discussion of Turkish affairs entitled, *Turkey Faces West*.

The twelve chapters of this volume—all of them based upon a series of lectures delivered at the Williamstown Institute of Politics—are unmistakably the plea of a Turk for a revised western viewpoint towards Turkey. For many decades the Turks have been almost inarticulate in the matter of defending themselves against western conceptions of their country and their habits. They have been maligned, cursed, blamed, despised, and hated, without so much as a defensive retort. On the other hand, as Mme. Edib points out, Turkish opinion of the West was not much more complimentary, nor did the Turks make any particular effort to verify their prejudiced notions. And it was, in part, to remedy this situation, that Mme. Edib wrote this latest of her books. Though, as Professor Earle points out in his Preface, the book can in no sense be considered an *apologia*, it is a skillful presentation of the Turkish "case." In it Mme. Edib succeeds in giving the world an entertaining Turkish story of Turkish development from Ertogrul to Mustapha Kemal, and, indeed, to the question, "Whither Turkey?"

It was high time that an antidote to the pre- and post-war Turcophobia, affecting all too many Westerners, was

provided. And Mme. Edib's handling of the task is in itself a proof of the fallacy and stupidity of the beliefs which characterized the Turks as incapable of civilization, progress, and benevolent leadership.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

*Conway Letters.* Edited by Marjorie Hope Nicolson. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. xxviii, 517 pp. \$6.00.

Some day when the anti-Puritan bias that seems so rife at present has given way to greater tolerance we can look to a new history of seventeenth century England. In the preparation of that history few books will surpass in value—value of suggestion as well as content—this volume collected and edited by Professor Marjorie Nicolson. The letters include the correspondence of Viscountess Conway, Henry More, the Cambridge Platonist, and their friends during the period, 1642-1684. And such friends they had: a hall of fame, no less! Sir Theodore Turquet de Mayerne, who brought calomel and clinical observation to England, was one. Sir Kenelm Digby, who dabbled in everything—religion, art, love, philosophy, and cosmetics—was another. Then there were John Selden, the great legal antiquarian; Robert Boyle, of Boyle's law; Valentine Greatrakes, the Irish "stroker"; William Penn, and Francis Mercury van Helmont, "the Scholar Gypsy"; and the interests of all of them fiber the book. But, above and beyond all loom Anne, Viscountess Conway and Henry More. This is their book, and their letters provide its essential quality. Anne Conway, *née* Finch, was a remarkable woman, the friend, even the inspiration, of a great philosopher and a host of intellectuals, and contriving to be pretty much of a woman through it all. Henry More—"never more truly a Platonist" than in his friendship for Anne Conway—was the center of the group that made the Cambridge of the last half of the seventeenth century the very center of English intellectual life. Their letters, one to the other, are not, however, mere bulletins of erudition. They are transcendently human: the philosopher complains of his aches and rhapsodizes on his hopes, or gossips as lesser men might do; Anne Conway replies in kind, offering consolation or advice. Miss Nicolson deserves great credit for having unearthed these letters, only fifteen or twenty of which have been published before—there are nearly three hundred in this collection. She further deserves our thanks for her commentary and the information with regard to the history and character of many of the "friends" who appear. There is a valuable appendix containing a handy list of the letters with their date and source, and also a complete index.

CHARLES F. MULLETT.

University of Missouri.

*Ravenau de Lussan. Buccaneer of the Spanish Main and Early French Filibuster of the Pacific. A Translation into English of his Journal of a Voyage into the South Seas in 1684 and the following years with the Filibusters.* Translated and edited by Marguerite Eyer Wilber. The Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, 1930. 303 pp.

*Filibusters and Buccaneers.* By Alfred Sternbeck. Translated by Elizabeth Hill and Doris Mudie. Robert M. McBride and Company, New York, 1930. ix, 272 pp.

*Hackins: Scourge of Spain.* By Philip Gosse. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1930. xii, 290 pp.

These three works, which appeared within a few months of each other, treat of buccaneering and filibustering along the Spanish Main and elsewhere in Spanish-American waters; they are entertaining, instructive, and valuable for reference. The first volume, however, differs from the others in that it is a translation of a journal of an actual participant in the events described. It tells the story of a young man, who becoming involved in debts in France, went to America to engage in buccaneering in order to recoup his fortune and pay his creditors. In November, 1684, he joined the expedition of Captain Lawrence de Gras which was engaged in plundering Spanish ships in

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Boston, Mass.

the Caribbean and Gulf. At the beginning of March, 1685, the adventurers landed on the Panama isthmus, and after six weeks of hardships arrived on the Pacific (South Sea), where they joined with the French filibusters under Grognet and Lescuyer, whose headquarters were nearby on King's Island. At that base there were at the time ten vessels and about 1,100 men. But in a short while the leaders quarrelled and the filibusters divided into French and English factions and separated. Lussan joined the French party under Grognet, who had about 300 men serving under his own pirate flag. For more than two years this band pillaged the Spanish coast from Chile to Guatemala. At the end of that time, Lussan, having acquired a good size fortune from gambling, as well as from plunder, left the filibusters and returned to France in the spring of 1688.

This in outline is the story told by the journal, but the delightful account must be read to be appreciated. No one, unless it be Esquemeling, has succeeded better in portraying the life of the buccaneers and the contemporary characteristics of the Spanish colonists whom they encountered. The whole account goes a long way in reconstructing in a more pleasant light the life and deeds of the French buccaneers in particular. The translator of this work points out what many seem to forget, namely, that these French pirates were of the same faith as the Spanish, while the English and Dutch filibusters were Protestants, thus accounting in part for the greater cruelty of the latter toward the Spanish.

According to the publishers, this translation of the journal into English is the second complete one, the first being in 1702. The present translation is made from the rare French original. However, most of the journal has recently appeared in English in Besson's *Scourge of the Indies* (1929). The work under review is handsomely printed in large Caslon on deckle-edged paper. The nine illustrations are beautifully done after the Clark tradition. The index is brief but useful.

The second volume, which was published first in German in 1928, deals with filibustering in the middle waters of America, and covers intermittently the period from the beginning of buccaneering in the sixteenth century to the early eighteenth century, when it merged into piracy. The story thus includes the deeds of such men as Hawkins, Drake, Clifford, Morgan, Teach, Sharp, Roberts, Kidd, Woodes Rogers, "Long Ben" (Henry Avery), L'Olonnais, etc. The author has told the adventures of these individuals in a romantic fashion. In doing this he has attempted to show the differences between filibustering, buccaneering, and piracy, but it is questionable whether he has succeeded, because in the final analysis there is fundamentally little difference between them. The facts of the book, the author states, are based upon "well-known original sources," although there is nothing to indicate what these are. The illustrations, numbering 16, might have been better selected. The index of nearly eight pages is useful.

The third book attempts to portray the real Hawkins, a man whom the author seems to think has been largely obscured by his contemporaries, Raleigh, Drake, Gilbert, Davis, Frobisher, Hudson, and others. At the very beginning it is pointed out that Hawkins has been frequently likened to his kinsman, the daring Drake, who was ten years younger than the hero of the volume. But such a comparison is wrong, the author asserts; they were entirely dissimilar except for courage. Hawkins was cautious and crafty, stubborn, never ruffled, sober-minded, well educated, an excellent letter writer, modest in action, and charming and moderate in habits. Hawkins has been accused wrongly of being one of the "Sea Dogs," and of being the first Englishman to engage in the slave trade. The author has tried to dispel some of the legends about, and some of the calumny heaped upon, Hawkins in the centuries following his death in 1595.

The book is a solid piece of work, and certainly cannot be classified with the "debunking" type of biography. It is not, however, a brilliant work. It furnishes in a rather prosaic fashion a running and detailed narrative of the events in the life and times of Hawkins, showing his adventures in Spanish-American waters, his part in defeat-

ing the Spanish Armada, his duties as treasurer of the British navy, and his final voyage and death, partly due to malaria, at the age of 63. Like many another hero of Britain his body was buried at sea. The volume is concluded with a very brief bibliography, and a good index.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

George Washington University.

*Church History. A Complete History of the Catholic Church to the Present Day.* By Rev. John Laux, M.A. With illustrations and maps. Benziger Brothers, New York, 1930. xix, 620 pp.

Texts written for high school pupils studying history appear in an almost continuous stream from the press. As a rule, they are better printed, more adequately illustrated, equipped with a better apparatus of exercises and of suggestions for further study, and lower in price than their predecessors. This *Church History* is no exception to this tendency. For its purposes it seems wholly admirable. The style is clear, the story moves along with a lively momentum, copious illustrations, charts and maps supplement the word pictures, the price—\$2.25 list, \$1.69 net to schools—is remarkably low for a book of over six hundred pages. Two-thirds of the book is devoted to the period before the Reformation. All sides of the activities of the Church herself are discussed—a noteworthy feature—but this pre-occupation leads to a failure to see the relations of the Church to society at large. Like almost all our "patriotic" histories, this history aims to inspire rather than to tell the truth under all circumstances. There is no real understanding nor critical study of the major movements of Church history. Perhaps this is too much to expect in a high school text. It gives the usual simple and often childlike interpretation of complex movements, thereby at times distorting the true picture almost beyond recognition. The time seems still far in the future when the ideal of truth in writing history may prevail over the ideal of loyalty.

IRVING W. RAYMOND.

Columbia University.

## Book Notes

Messrs. P. A. Sorokin, C. C. Zimmerman and C. J. Galpin in volume one of their treatise entitled, *A Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology* (the University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1930. xx, 645 pp.), explain their motive for publishing this work as follows: "Human society throughout its history in its origins, forms, activities, processes, growth, evolution, has been so largely under the pressure of agricultural and rural forces that up to the present sociology as a science of society has virtually been the sociology of rural life. A world view of the sociology of rural life is important for the development of the science. In order to balance the vogue of agricultural economics as an educational discipline and a guide to public action in America, major emphasis is now required upon a sound rural sociology. There is need that the content of rural sociology, whether presented in texts or lying in the popular mind, should contain facts of an indubitable sociological character. There is need in the textile organization of the facts of rural sociology for a resolutely scientific methodology. In the training of American rural sociologists there is need for a broad acquaintance with the rural sociological thought and theory of Europe and Asia. And finally in this era of American teaching, research and extension of rural sociological facts and theory, and in this period of experimental agrarian legislation, a systematic source book world-wide in scope is timely." Whether one agrees with all this or not, it is certain that the authors have put together a volume which is a veritable encyclopedia for the sociologist and the student of intellectual history. The volume here reviewed consists of two main divisions. Part one gives a concise summary of the history of rural sociological theory, and outlines the main sociological characteristics of the rural world and the farmer-peasant class from the time of the ancient Babylonians to the present. The second part gives the details of the external and more formal characteristics of the

sociological organization of rural life. Two projected volumes will deal with the institutional, psychological phases of rural organization, and the demographic characteristics of rural and urban populations. The readings for volume one, which are selected from the writings of some eighty authors ranging from Hesiod to Baden-Powell and Rostovtzeff, are arranged in chapters, and are prefaced with introductory statements. Moreover, there are abundant footnotes and bibliographical apparatus. The authors and publishers are to be congratulated for producing what ought to prove a most useful tool for the social scientist.

*The Origin and History of the New York Employing Printers' Association* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1930. 139 pp.), by Charlotte E. Morgan, bears the sub-title, *The Evolution of a Trade Association*. It traces the purposes, principles, and methods of present New York City printers' societies, and shows how these have in part evolved out of the past. In a very true sense the monograph is a history of the printing industry in New York City, and as such it is extremely worth while for the student of social and economic history.

Dr. Philip Alexander Bruce, to whom the student of American history is already so heavily indebted for his admirable researches in the field of Virginia colonial history, has placed the historical guild under further obligation through the publication of two compact and beautifully manufactured volumes entitled, *The Virginia Plutarch* (the University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1929. Vol. I, xiv, 328 pp.; Vol. II, x, 352 pp.). Dr. Bruce tells us that his main purpose in writing these volumes was to produce "not a series of detached character studies, but rather a continuous narrative of deeds running from the beginning of the Colonial age to our own times." That he has been eminently successful in his purpose no one will deny. To accomplish this purpose, however, he has had to soft-pedal personal qualities and stress the contributions of his several characters to American civilization. Volume one—the Colonial and Revolutionary Era—contains nineteen names: The Emperor Powhatan, Captain John Smith, Pocahontas, Sir Thomas Dale, Sir George Yardley, Sir William Berkeley, Nathaniel Bacon, Sir Francis Nicholson, Governor Alexander Spotswood, Colonel William Byrd, Colonel George Washington, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, George Mason, Richard Henry Lee, General George Washington, George Rogers Clark, Daniel Morgan, John Sevier. Volume two—the National Era—has for its roll of honor Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Tyler and Wilson, Captain Meriwether Lewis, John Marshall, John Randolph of Roanoke, Samuel Houston, Winfield Scott, Edgar Allan Poe, Commodore Mathew F. Maury, Robert E. Lee, "Stonewall" Jackson, "Jeb" Stuart and Dr. Walter Reed. Few, if any, acquainted with the long and honorable history of Virginia would, in the opinion of the reviewer, select a more distinguished list, although some might wish to see the names of Joseph E. Johnston and Cyrus H. McCormick included. One is also impressed by the fact that not a woman is listed. Both volumes are profusely illustrated.

Josephine Goldmark's *Pilgrims of '48. One Man's Part in the Austrian Revolution of 1848 and a Family Migration to America*, with a preface by Joseph Redlich (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. xviii, 311 pp.), is a notable contribution to the history of both Modern Europe and the United States. In the first place, it portrays old Austria, particularly old Vienna, the leading participants in the Austrian revolution of 1848 and the principal events of that stirring upheaval. Miss Goldmark's father was one of the most prominent of those who took part in the movement, and her story, therefore, is not only purely biographical but historical, in that it gives a most careful description of the social, cultural and political features of old Austria. One hundred sixty-six pages are devoted to this part of her story. The second part describes the migration of her parents and their friends to America after

The Next Regular Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies Will Be Held in Detroit, on February 21, 1931

## NATIONAL COUNCIL for the SOCIAL STUDIES

DETROIT, MICHIGAN

February 21, 1931

9.30 A. M.

### LODGE ROOM A, MASONIC TEMPLE

1. "The Training of Social Science Teachers"

Dr. O. W. Stephenson, University of Michigan.

2. "Occupational Information as a Social Study"

Mr. William G. Bate, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Indiana.

3. "Research in the Teaching of Social Science"

Mr. R. O. Hughes, Department of Curricula Study and Research, Pittsburgh, Pa.

12.00 Noon

### LUNCHEON, FORT WAYNE HOTEL

Speaker: Mr. Smith Burnham, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

Subject: "The Future of the Social Studies in the Light of Present Trends."

Tickets: One dollar. As far as possible, reservations should be made in advance. Write Mr. C. C. Barnes, 153 East Elizabeth Street, Detroit, Michigan.

2.00 P. M.

### LODGE ROOM A, MASONIC TEMPLE

#### A NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES YEARBOOK

Discussion led by Mr. R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago

Chairman of Committee on Local Arrangements, C. C. BARNES

their failure to achieve the liberal and democratic ideals for which they fought in their old homes, of their homesickness as they journeyed through New York to the Middle West, and of their many activities there. The volume is based on letters and papers of the Goldmark family, and upon source material obtained in the libraries and archives of Vienna. Many documents and speeches are here printed for the first time. Lucidly and yet charmingly written, this volume should be read by every person who wants to better understand one of the most interesting series of events that transformed Europe during the last century.

Students of history who turn to Lord Balfour's *Retrospect* (Houghton, Mifflin, Boston, 1930. vi, 245 pp.) will not add greatly to their store of historical fact, but they will catch the flavor of an unusual life and the atmosphere of a lost society. Aside from interesting vignettes of the late Victorian giants, the one bit of precise historiography in the book is the account of that Fourth Party which balanced its meagre numbers with remarkable political weight between 1880 and 1885, and after Disraeli's death contributed notably to the re-orientation of British party politics. Balfour's autobiography reveals him to have been a statesman who set off his lack of verbal memory by an extraordinary ability to compose logical and lucid discourse while on his feet. He appreciated clearly the values of parliamentary debate and tactics. He was a philosopher (of eighteenth century mold) who might have become a Cambridge don, but for the almost irresistible lure of politics which existed for a man whose homes were Hatfield (of the Cecils) and Whittingehame. He knew and enjoyed the confidence of the political great between 1878 and 1930. He died while preparing these reminiscences, and in consequence they extend only to 1886, but it is significant that the two fragmentary chapters on his later life concern the influence of games on social life, and his visit to the United States in 1917. Every one will regret that we are not to have more of his recollections. One would like, for instance, to probe more deeply the enigma of the true "amateur" in public life. Yet there is much of an important, if imponderable, character to be found in the short volume which we have.

Once again William Stearns Davis has scored by producing in his *Life in Elizabethan Days* (Harper's, New York, 1930. xii, 376 pp., \$3.50) a book that will be read by students and general readers alike with no little enjoyment. Here he has presented in rounded detail "a picture of a typical English community at the end of the sixteenth century." If this book has not quite the piquant charm of the author's earlier *Life on a Medieval Barony*, the reason lies, no doubt, in the very profusion of material which makes the task of selection and synthesis so difficult. In any case, the book is very readable, and only a pedant may quarrel with the features Mr. Davis has chosen to play up. Among those features he has considered religion, war, society, amusements, business, plagues, witchcraft, rogues, and the intellectual life. In nearly every instance he has found something pertinent to say, and his finished product conveys as few false impressions as any such book possibly can. It is a little unfortunate that Mr. Davis felt it unnecessary to discuss London life in more detail, for his typical community placed within one day's hard riding of the metropolis was undoubtedly affected by it. By Elizabeth's time London influence had begun to pervade the surrounding country to a very noticeable degree. The book contains a number of illustrations, many of them contemporary prints. There is no bibliography, but in his preface the author has indicated the main sources of his material and his point of view.—C. F. M.

Longmans have just published for Professor D. O. Dykes, of Edinburgh, his *Source Book of Constitutional History from 1660* (New York. xi, 505 pp., \$7.00). Like C. G. Robertson's *Select Cases and Documents* (fifth edition, Methuen, London, 1928, 12/6), it is meant to be used to carry on British constitutional history from the point at which the Clarendon Press series of source books breaks

off. It is natural, therefore, to compare the two. The chief difference is of arrangement. Robertson lists his statutes and documents chronologically down to the Parliament Act of 1911, then repeats the process with his cases down to *Ex Parte Marais* (1902), and avoids the necessity of remaking his book by a group of four appendices on impeachment, taxation and supply, the Dominion constitutions, and the Anglo-Irish treaty. Mr. Dykes groups his materials by subject-matter (e. g., the United Kingdom, Treason, Freedom of Speech, etc.), and ignores chronology except within the groups. Robertson gives brief comment to his material as it is introduced. Dykes has written a useful general introduction in sub-divisions corresponding to the arrangement of his materials. His chief advantage over Robertson in amount of materials is for the period before 1720, and after 1832 in the actual statutes affecting the Dominions. Both books are, unfortunately, expensive, but the new one costs almost twice as much as the old.

John S. Linberg's study, *The Background of Swedish Emigration to the United States* (the University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1930. xiv, 272 pp.) emphasizes the economic and sociological aspects of Swedish migration to America. The author has treated his material analytically, and his findings, therefore, have added significance. No one interested in the problem of immigration or in the part played by the Swedes in the civilization of the upper Mississippi valley can afford to ignore this scholarly monograph.

Those who are converts to the so-called new school of history will welcome Victor Rosewater's *History of Co-operative News-Gathering in the United States* (D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1930. xiv, 430 pp.). Mr. Rosewater, who has spent his life in newspaper work, has been for more than a quarter of a century a member of the old Associated Press of Illinois and its successor, the Associated Press of New York. He is eminently well qualified, therefore, to write a volume of this character. His documented story tells how news was gathered from colonial times to the present—from the days when the newspaper had to depend on incoming sailing vessels to the present co-operative news-gathering association. One cannot read this witty and interesting volume with its account of the part played by carrier pigeon, pony express, train, ship, telegraph cable and wireless with better appreciating what revolutionary changes have been effected in journalism during the last century. It is a valuable contribution to the literature of American social and intellectual history.

Those interested in the art of letter writing—in the present age almost a lost art—may read with profit *W. H. T. G. to His Friends. Some letters and informal writings of Canon W. H. Temple Gairdner of Cairo* (London, S. P. C. K., 1930. 173 pp., \$2.00). These letters reflect the spirit and mind of a splendid Christian in his dealings of love and sympathy with his "brothers," and contain charming word pictures of the Egyptian landscape and life.

The Berkshire Studies in European History, a series which aims to present in convenient form themes in history not easily available to students, has issued another volume, dealing with *Medieval Slavdom and the Rise of Russia*. (By Frank Nowak. Henry Holt, New York, 1930. xii, 132 pp., \$1.00.) This is a short account of the epic but little studied struggle between the Slav and Teuton. The section on medieval slavdom is well done, and is particularly useful for survey courses in Medieval History. The chapters of the other sections dealing with the foundation of the Russian Empire, Catharine the Great, and Poland in the eighteenth century, may easily be found elsewhere in more comprehensive and satisfactory treatments; however, it was a sound practice of the author to unite these themes to the earlier survey of medieval slavdom, since the continuous story leaves a vivid impression of the vital rôle of the Slav in European history. A selective bibliography is included, but no maps.

Samuel F. Batchelder, author of *Bits of Harvard History*, which was so favorably received a few years ago, has essayed a companion volume, *Bits of Cambridge History* (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1930. 349 pp.). The new volume contains four essays. The first, "Burgoyne and His Officers in Cambridge," gives a full account of Burgoyne and his army in Cambridge after the surrender at Saratoga. The second, "Colonel Henry Vassall," reviews the long and colorful history of the Vassall House. The third, "The Washington Elm Tradition," examines and rejects the Washington Elm Legend. The fourth, "Adventures of John Nutting, Cambridge Loyalist," records the experiences—many of them unhappy—which Nutting along with other Tories endured. The volume is certain to be useful to the student of American history in the Revolutionary era.

In his monographic study, *Russo-American Relations, 1815-1867* (the Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1930. 185 pp.), Professor Benjamin Platt Thomas has rendered a useful service to the student of diplomatic history. He shows that from the very beginning of her relations with us Russia regarded the United States as an actual or potential element in the European balance of power and governed her attitude to the United States accordingly. This work is added proof, if such is needed, that the history of America is, in many respects, part and parcel of world history.

## Books on History and Government published in the United States from Nov. 29, to Dec. 27, 1930

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Batchelder, Samuel F. *Bits of Cambridge history*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 355 pp. \$4.00.
- Blanton, Wyndham B. *Medicine in Virginia in the seventeenth century*. Richmond, Va.: Wm. Byrd Press. 354 pp. (7 p. bibl.). \$6.00.
- Bradstreet, Howard, editor. *The story of the Pequot war of 1637*. Hartford, Conn.: Polygon Press. 46 pp.
- Bushnell, David I., Jr. *The five Monacan towns in Virginia, 1607*. Wash., D. C.: Smithsonian Inst. 52 pp.
- Carpenter, Jesse T. *The South as a conscious minority, 1789-1861, a study in political thought*. N. Y.: N. Y. Univ. Press. 325 pp. (34 p. bibl.). \$4.50.
- Coolidge, D., and Coolidge, M. E. B. *The Navajo Indians*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 326 pp. (7 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Giles, Helen F. *How the United States became a world power*. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill. 241 pp. 96 cents.
- Hebard, Grace R. *Washakie; an account of Indian resistance of the covered wagon and Union Pacific invasions of their territory*. Glendale, Cal.: A. H. Clark Co. 400 pp. \$6.00.
- Kennedy, Mary A. *How the United States became a United Nation*. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill. 231 pp. 96 cents.
- Meade, George Gordon. *With Meade at Gettysburg*. Phila.: Winston. 205 pp. \$4.75.
- Mitchell, B., and Mitchell, G. S. *The industrial revolution in the South*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 312 pp. \$2.75.
- Nida, W. L., and Webb, V. L. *Our country, past and present; a unified course in the history and geography of the U. S.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman. 408 pp. \$1.76.
- Reed, Harold L. *Federal Reserve policy, 1921-1930*. N. Y.: McGraw-Hill. 207 pp. \$2.50.
- Shropshire, Olive E. *How Europeans became Americans*. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill. 270 pp. 96 cents.
- How Europeans found and peopled America. N. Y.: C. E. Merrill. 272 pp. 96 cents.
- Stock, Leo F. *Proceedings and debates of the British Parliament respecting North America, 1702-1797*. Vol. 3. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 597 pp. \$4.00.

## Handbooks of Citizenship

### Topical Supplements to Textbooks of American History and Government

By RAYNER W. KELSEY, Ph.D.,

Professor of American History in Haverford College

By way of illustration the following data are presented, taken from HANDBOOK No. 3:

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5.	A Heyday of High Protection, 1897-1913 .....	13
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### TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

Was the South justified in attempting to nullify the tariff in 1832? Pages 8-9.

What are the relative merits of the tariff arguments by Cleveland and McKinley printed in the Special Note? Page 29.

If the Tariff Commission cannot "take the tariff out of politics," is such a commission worth while? Pages 18-21.

Do you favor a "flexible" tariff? Pages 19-21.

Do you agree with Secretary Mellon's view concerning the Bankers' Manifesto? Pages 22-23.

Is the increase of international trade tending to make the tariff an international instead of a purely domestic question? Pages 19-20, 22.

Are foreign manufacturers justified in objecting to our attempts to ascertain their production costs? Pages 19-20.

Was Governor Smith wise in attempting to modify the tariff principles of his party? Page 24.

Should the Tariff of 1930 have included a provision for export debentures? Pages 25-26.

In making the Tariff of 1930 should more weight have been given to the protest made by professional economists? Pages 26-27.

Do you feel that the Tariff Act of 1930 was wise or unwise legislation? Why? Pages 27-28.

### LIST OF HANDBOOKS

- No. 1. PROHIBITION (1929)  
 No. 2. FARM RELIEF (third edition, 1930)  
 No. 3. THE TARIFF (third edition, 1930)  
 No. 4. INTERNATIONALISM (1930)  
 No. 5. POLITICAL PARTIES (1930)

(Note: A sample copy, which fairly illustrates all of the series, will be sent to anyone contemplating the use of the Handbooks in classes or discussion groups. Specify which number is desired.)

### PRICES

Single copies, 25 cents, prepaid; 10 or more copies, any assortment, 20 cents each, not prepaid.

McKinley Publishing Company

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## ANCIENT HISTORY

- Amann, Prof. The church of the early centuries. St. Louis: B. Herder. 249 pp. \$1.35.
- Baikie, James. Ancient Jerusalem. N. Y.: Macmillan. 89 pp. \$1.00.
- Cook, Stanley A. The religion of ancient Palestine in the light of archaeology. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 268 pp. \$4.75.
- Moore, George F. Judaism in the first centuries of the Christian era, the age of the Tannaim. Vol. 3. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 217 pp. \$4.00.
- Tarn, William W. Hellenistic military and naval developments. N. Y.: Macmillan. 177 pp. \$2.40.

## ENGLISH HISTORY

- Canaway, A. P. The failure of federalism in Australia. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 224 pp. \$5.00.
- Edwardes, S. M., and Garrett, H. L. O. Mughal rule in India. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 382 pp. \$5.00.
- Feiling, Keith. British foreign policy, 1660-1672. N. Y.: Macmillan. 397 pp. \$7.20.
- Gill, C. Studies in midland history. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 208 pp. \$3.50.
- Haines, Charles R. Dover Priory. N. Y.: Macmillan. 535 pp. \$12.00.
- Hamwood Papers (The) of the ladies of Llangollen and Caroline Hamilton (18th Century English Society). N. Y.: Macmillan. 426 pp. \$8.50.
- Hartridge, R. A. R. A history of vicarages in the Middle Ages. N. Y.: Macmillan. 283 pp. (13 p. bibl.). \$6.00.
- Keith, A. B. The first British Empire. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 456 pp. \$7.00.
- Mackeurtan, Graham. The cradle days of Natal (1497-1845). N. Y.: Longmans. 360 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$6.00.
- Mackie, R. L. Short history of Scotland; pt. 2, From the Reformation to the present day. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 214 pp. 85 cents.
- Morris, William A. The constitutional history of England to 1216. N. Y.: Macmillan. 442 pp. \$2.75.
- Rayner, Robert M. England in Tudor and Stuart times, 1485-1714. N. Y.: Longmans. 386 pp. \$2.00.
- Verney, Margaret, Lady, editor. Verney letters of the 18th century from the Mss. at Claydon House. 2 vols. N. Y.: Longmans. 401, 355 pp. \$15.00.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Eddison, Eric R., translator. Egil's Saga. N. Y.: Macmillan. 380 pp. \$6.50.
- Feiler, Arthur. The Russian experiment. N. Y.: Harcourt. 272 pp. \$2.00.
- Mourret, Fernand. A history of the Catholic Church. Vol. 5, Renaissance and Reformation. St. Louis: B. Herder. 720 pp. \$4.00.
- Oman, Charles. A history of the Peninsular War; Vol. 7, August, 1813-April 14, 1814. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 585 pp. \$11.75.
- Poggius, Fra. The infallibility of the Pope at the Council of Constance; the trial of Hus...and his death. In two letters by a member of the council. N. Y.: Alpha Book Co., 22 E. 17th St. 103 pp. \$1.00.

## THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Bentwich, Norman De M. The mandates system. N. Y.: Longmans. 211 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.50.
- Kiesselbach, W. Problems of the German-American Claims Commission. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 135 pp. \$1.50.
- Koch-Weser, Erich. Germany in the post-war world. Phila.: Dorrance. 218 pp. \$2.00.

## MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Coulton, George G. The medieval scene. N. Y.: Macmillan. 172 pp. \$2.00.
- Pullan, L. From Justinian to Luther [Church history]. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 264 pp. \$4.50.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Gras, Norman S. B. Industrial evolution. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 259 pp. \$2.50.
- Jenkins, C., and MacKenzie, K. D., editors. Episcopacy,

ancient and modern. N. Y.: Macmillan. 441 pp. \$5.00.

Scheck, C. C., and Orton, M. A. Directed history study: 6th grade. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Bk. Co. 76 pp. 50 cents.

Scheck, C. C., and Orton, M. A. Directed history study: seventh grade. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 128 pp. 55 cents.

Strong, Richard P., and others. The African Republic of Liberia and the Belgian Congo. 2 vols. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 1095 pp. \$15.00.

Toynbee, A. J., and Boulter, V. M. Survey of international affairs, 1929. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 557 pp. \$7.00.

Wheeler-Bennett, J. W., editor. Documents on international affairs, 1929. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 362 pp. \$5.00.

## BIOGRAPHY

Bartholdt, Richard. From steerage to Congress [autobiography]. Phila.: Dorrance. 447 pp. \$4.00.

Wilkinson, Spenser. The rise of General Bonaparte. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 192 pp. \$4.25.

Whyte, A. J. The political life and letters of Cavour, 1848-1861. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 503 pp. \$6.00.

Gray, Edward F. Leif Eriksson, discoverer of America. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 220 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$7.50.

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Freak Warships: Their Influence on Naval History. Fletcher Pratt (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, December).

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#### THE BRITISH EMPIRE

Some Recent Books on the Relations of Great Britain and the United States. W. T. Waugh (*Canadian Historical Review*, December). Review article.

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#### UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

Persistent Problems of Church and State. E. B. Greene (*American Historical Review*, January). Presidential address of the American Historical Association.

American Democracy and the Frontier. B. F. Wright, Jr. (*Yale Review*, Winter).

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Leutze's painting.

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